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ABSTRACT

Lamar State College of Technology opened its first extension center in Orange, Texas, on an experimental basis for the academic year 1969-70. Its curriculum consisted primarily of first-year general education courses, and the emphasis was placed on providing opportunities for educationally disadvantaged youth. Chapter I of this study presents the problem. Chapter II reviews the literature on education for disadvantaged youth, the resulting compensatory programs and practices, and presents a critical evaluation of the results. Chapter III discusses the building facility, instructors, and student body of the Orange Center. Chapter IV reviews the academic achievement of the students during the fall semester based on their semester grade averages. Chapter summaries, a discussion of the disadvantaged students at the Center, and recommendations on how to increase enrollment of disadvantaged students and other topics are included in Chapter V. The questionnaire distributed to the students in the Center, a list of instructors, the class schedule, and information on the educational and occupational background of the parents are included in the appendix. (AF)

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THE ORANGE EXTENSION CENTER: AN EXPERIMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION BY LAMAR STATE COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY

A Thesis

Presented to

the Faculty of the School of Education

Lamar State College of Technology

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Education in Elementary Education

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by

Priscilla Baum Ellison

May 1970

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ABSTRACT

Lamar State College of Technology opened its first extension center in Orange, Texas, on an experimental basis for the academic year 1969-1970. Its curriculum consisted primarily of first year general education courses. Emphasis was placed on providing opportunities for educationally disadvantaged youth. This study described the facilities, faculty, and student body of the Orange Extension Center and evaluated the students' academic achievement at the completion of the fall semester.

The review of the literature covered the background and current interest in education for disadvantaged students, the resulting compensatory programs and practices, and a critical evaluation of the results. Compensatory practices were categorized according to their purpose: college enrollment and academic success after enrollment. A compensatory program was defined as an organized group of related compensatory practices. At present, evaluation of compensatory practices or programs has little validity due to the paucity of reports based on standard research techniques.

The Orange Extension Center was housed in a former elementary school; it contained the rudiments of a bookstore, library, and snack bar. There were four full time instructors, one of whom was also the director of the

Center, and fourteen part-time instructors. The staff, which was comparatively young and inexperienced, taught thirty-five classes in ten different departments. The description of the student body was based on data contained in a four-page, self-report questionnaire which was completed during the month of November, 1969. From an enrollment of 337, as confirmed by the faculty, a total of 334 students completed the questionnaire; of these, 325 students completed the fall semester.

The academic achievement of the students during the fall semester at the Center was investigated by using the semester grade averages. Tabulations of these averages were correlated with various data from the questionnaire. The semester grade point average for all of the students was 1.5, which corresponds to a "C" grade.

Some recommendations were made to increase the enrollment of disadvantaged students at the Center, such as motivation by public schools and parents, publicity, financial aid, and methods to reduce academic barriers, particularly in the area of language facility. Other, more general, recommendations were also made. The Center had a modest beginning and a general acceptance by area residents; it is anticipated that improvements will be made in the future.

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The writer wishes to express her gratitude to Dr. Martha E. Thomas for her willingness to serve as supervising professor of this research study and for her guidance, encouragement, and advice. Appreciation is extended to Dr. Myrtle L. Bell and to Dr. Claude B. Boren for being members of her advisory committee and for their consideration and specific suggestions. Particular thanks are also due Dr. E. B. Blackburn, Jr. and Dr. Thomas T. Salter for their support and interest in the successful completion of this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

Lamar State College of Technology in Beaumont, Texas, opened its first extension center in Orange, Texas, for the academic year 1969-1970. The establishment of this Center, on an experimental basis, was the result of many years of local effort and interest in obtaining an institution of higher education to meet the needs of those potential college students of the Orange area who were unable or unwilling to leave the immediate vicinity. Also, preliminary planning for the Center strongly emphasized its function in providing opportunities for educationally disadvantaged youth.

Traditionally, a large segment of the population of the United States has been denied higher education. Students from disadvantaged backgrounds seldom receive the necessary encouragement, academic assistance, or financial support that would enable them to realize their potential for satisfactory achievement at the college level. Not only are these students handicapped by their environment and cultural or ethnic caste status, but they may also be victims of their own attitudes, motivations, and aspirations.

A general concern for the education of disadvantaged youth has been heightened by many factors, ranging from the 1954 school desegregation decision of the Supreme Court to

the increasingly technological base of our country's industry. The goal of higher education for a larger number of youth has assumed a sense of urgency. Colleges and universities have taken more responsibility in providing programs of compensatory education in a variety of ways ranging from identifying students with college potential to providing special counseling, remedial work, and financial aid. Implementing Lamar's concern for the educationally disadvantaged was the opening of the Orange Extension Center.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. The problem of this study was (1) to describe the facilities, faculty, and student body of the Orange Extension Center of Lamar State College of Technology; and (2) to evaluate the students' academic achievement at the completion of the fall semester.

Importance of the study. In order to make intelligent plans for the future effectiveness or expansion of the Center, it was necessary to investigate and describe the first semester of its existence. The accurate knowledge of how many students were enrolled in specific courses would obviously be of assistance in scheduling classes and recruiting the appropriate instructors for the subsequent year.

Less obvious but of more significance, an insight into the students themselves, their backgrounds and their

reasons for attending college, would provide pertinent data for Lamar. By inference, these facts could indicate which compensatory practices would best attract and encourage disadvantaged students in the Orange area.

Background of the study. Several attempts have been made in the past to offer college level courses in Orange. The Education Committee of the Orange Chamber of Commerce approached the University of Texas about offering Texas Government and Texas History in extension classes, but the University refused. Lamar State College of Technology has offered extension courses in Orange occasionally when there was sufficient interest in specific courses; however, this was never done on a regular, consistent basis.

There was sufficient interest in having a college in Orange that the formation of a college district was voted upon by the electorate on November 26, 1968. With a total of 2,031 votes for it and 2,743 votes against it, the measure was defeated by 712 votes. The narrow margin of the defeat encouraged the supporters of a local college to bring the issue to the voters again on March 18, 1969. This time there was a wider margin of defeat: the measure lost by 1,140 votes, with a total of 3,684 for and 4,824 against the college.

Following the second defeat at the polls, Dr. Thomas T. Salter, Dean of Extension and Special Services at Lamar, was

approached about the feasibility of establishing an extension center at Orange, and tentative plans were begun. At this time there were several administrative changes at Lamar due to the death of its president in March. Not until the new president, Dr. Frank A. Thomas, was named in June could definite approval be secured for the Orange Extension Center to open in September, 1969.

During the three-month period from June to September, a building to house the center was secured and renovated, a faculty assembled, and the community informed of Lamar's plans and progress by various means of publicity. Community support and enthusiasm for the Center was demonstrated materially by both physical and financial assistance as well as by less tangible means.

II. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Compensatory practices. The term "compensatory practices" in higher education refers to any modification of standard practices designed to further the academic success of disadvantaged students. To facilitate college entry, there may be preadmission preparation, special recruitment practices, financial aid, and administrative variations of admission requirements. After students are admitted, the compensatory practices may include remedial studies, special guidance and counseling services, tutoring, and extensions of the four-year program.

Disadvantaged. The term "disadvantaged" refers to various groups which differ from each other in many ways, but have in common such characteristics as low educational achievement, low economic status, low social status, limited or no employment, little potential for upward mobility, and limited or no participation in community activities. Cultural attitudes are often in conflict with those of the majority of the population, particularly if the groups are predominantly Negro, Mexican, Puerto Rican, American Indian, and southern rural or mountain whites. Other terms are used for these groups, such as "socioeconomically deprived," "poverty-stricken," "culturally alienated," and several others.

III. LIMITATIONS

This study was limited to a description of faculty, classes, and students at the Center during the month of November, 1969. The limitation was imposed due to the many changes in class schedules, faculty additions, and student additions and withdrawals during the first few weeks of the fall semester.

Each class roll was personally checked, corrected, and verified by the appropriate instructor. According to these class rolls, plus a few other corrections, there were 337 students attending class regularly at the Center

during the month of November, 1969. Questionnaires were completed during the same month by 334 of the students; in this study, all statistical information regarding students was limited to the data provided by the questionnaire. It was assumed that the students responded to the questionnaires honestly and correctly.

IV. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A self-report questionnaire was constructed to gather information about each subject that was deemed most relevant for this study. Two pages of the questionnaire dealt with personal and parental data; on the other two pages, the student was asked questions concerning enrollment and educational data. A copy of this questionnaire may be seen in Appendix A.

The faculty at the Center was asked to distribute the questionnaires. The students were permitted to complete the questionnaires during a regularly scheduled class period and then return them to the instructor.

V. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

This paper is a study of the Orange Extension Center with emphasis placed on its distinguishing characteristic of providing opportunities for disadvantaged students. Chapter II contains background material on compensatory

education for disadvantaged youth, recent or current programs and practices in various colleges and universities, and problems in program evaluation. The Orange Extension Center is described in Chapter III, and the data obtained on the questionnaires are utilized to determine the students' backgrounds and their educational achievements and aspirations. Chapter IV contains conclusions drawn from correlations of information concerning the students with the fall semester grades that were earned by the students. Findings are summarized and recommendations are made in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Widespread interest in education for the disadvantaged, the resulting compensatory programs and practices, and a critical evaluation of results has been an educational phenomenon of the 1960's. Prior to 1960, the literature was almost devoid of discussions of higher education for the disadvantaged; the trend toward action has developed only during the past six or seven years. Only a brief summary of the background, objectives, and programs designed for higher education for the disadvantaged will be given here.

I. LITERATURE ON BACKGROUND AND CURRENT STATUS OF HIGHER EDUCATION FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

Higher education in the United States is derived from many different sources and reflects many different traditions. The idea of an undergraduate college which offers a general or liberal education was imported from England. The idea that a college should serve its community is, for the most part, an American concept which started with the land-grant college movement in the late nineteenth century and has been re-interpreted in the form of community colleges in the twentieth century. The idea that a university should concentrate on research, scholarship, and the training of

graduate students is a German conception. The belief that a college should prepare people for an extremely wide variety of vocations is an American expression of the democratic ideal. The role of higher education as an instrument of national policy is a result of both scientific technology and the constant political crises after World War II.[1]

Traditionally, higher education in the United States has served an elite minority. The archetype of an institution of higher education is the small, private, liberal arts college; in the beginning, its major function was to prepare men for the professions - law, medicine, theology. The idea that a college education should be available only to a carefully selected group is still prevalent. Even now only about half of all high school graduates go to college, and most of them are products of the middle and upper classes of society - affluent rather than poor, white rather than black, well-schooled, tested, and selected.[2]

The dominance of the liberal arts colleges over American higher education was challenged by the creation of the land-grant colleges. These institutions were created when

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[1]Hugh S. Brown and Lewis B. Mayhew, American Higher Education (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1965), pp. 2-3.

[2]John Egerton, Higher Education for "High Risk" Students (Atlanta, Georgia: Southern Education Foundation, 1968), p. 51.

President Lincoln signed the Morrill Act on July 2, 1862. This Act, sometimes called the Land-Grant Act, granted to each state public land in the amount of 30,000 acres for each Senator and Member of the House of Representatives, the value from which was to support at least one institution of higher learning. It was specified that the leading objective was to teach subjects related to agriculture and the mechanic arts, an earlier name for engineering. An essential element of the land-grant philosophy was the need to extend educational services to wherever people were; many students attended a college because of its accessibility.[3]

A specific concern for the education of disadvantaged youth was evident before the Civil War in this country. Berea College in Kentucky and Oberlin College in Ohio were among the early leaders in this field. After the Civil War, several religious denominations began to found colleges for Negroes. Later, the states joined in the effort to provide Negroes with needed skills and to keep Negroes from attending white institutions. The second Morrill Act of 1890 granted additional Federal funds and provided for the creation of similar institutions for Negroes in states that would not allow Negroes to enroll in their existing land-grant institutions. Many of these colleges could scarcely be considered collegiate

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[3]Brown and Mayhew, op. cit., pp. 23-4.

in level; during the ensuing years, the segregated college system has failed to match the achievement and quality of the broader higher education system.[4]

Higher education for the disadvantaged has received impetus from the efforts in this country to establish civil rights for all citizens; the 1954 Supreme Court school desegregation decision was a historic milestone in a continuing struggle. Many social, economic, and political influences have combined to emphasize the importance of higher education for individuals and for the nation.

In former years, the youth who were academic failures could be absorbed into the rural work force or could learn a manual trade. An increasingly urban population and an increasingly technological economy demand a work force that is able to communicate effectively and to deal with abstract concepts. This requires much more academic preparation than was necessary even a generation ago.[5] The best qualified youth should, of course, be trained to the maximum. But many of today's disadvantaged youth leave high school without the minimum skills that are necessary for economic survival in this complex age.

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[4]Edmund W. Gordon, The Higher Education of the Disadvantaged, Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), p.5.

[5]Michael Harrington, The Other America (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1963), pp. 12-13.

Students no longer utilize four or more years of their lives for cultural adornment, but for career reasons. Francis J. Barros illustrated this point in the following passage:

> In our present technological society higher education has become an essential commodity. We have been deluged with statistics on the lifetime cash value of a college degree. The symbols and slogans of success are set in educational terms. Higher education has become a central economic commodity, more important even than capital... Academic background and achievement have substituted for wealth, birth, and traditional status.[6]

David T. Bazelon was even more specific when he wrote:

> The propertyless New Class is most broadly defined as that group of people gaining status and income through organizational position. They achieve their positions - or at least they enter the race to achieve them - mostly by virtue of educational status.[7]

Youth soon discover that a college degree is a prerequisite for higher level jobs.

The trend towards requiring a college degree for an increasing number of jobs is controversial. Except for purposes of getting a job, the necessity of four years or more of academic preparation for some occupations might be debatable. But if society demands degrees as credentials for the best jobs, then the degrees ought to be available to those

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[6]Francis J. Barros, "Equal Opportunity in Higher Education," The Journal of Negro Education, 37:310, Summer 1968.

[7]David T. Bazelon, Power in America (New York: The New American Library, 1963), p. 308.

who can, in fact, perform those jobs.[8]

There has been a general acceptance of the idea that public schools are an instrument of social change in this country and that part of their responsibility is to help improve opportunities for minorities and the poor. Elementary and secondary schools have attempted to assimilate successive waves of culturally disadvantaged immigrant children.[9] Now the economic pressure for post-high school training and the emerging demands of racial and minority groups have forced institutions of higher education to re-evaluate their responsibility to the disadvantaged.

Colleges and universities seem to be trapped between two seemingly irreconcilable forces. One is the increasing demand for universality of education; the second is the increasing demand for maintaining ever-higher standards of academic and scholarly achievement. The educator, Jacques Barzun, wrote that the American university has "...recognized social needs by undertaking to teach the quite young, the middle-aged, the disabled, the deprived, the misdirected, and the maladjusted...".[10] On the other hand, an anonymous

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[8]Thomas J. Bray, "What Does a College Degree Mean?" The Wall Street Journal, January 9, 1970, p. 8.

[9]Edmund W. Gordon and Doxey A. Wilkerson, Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged (Princeton, New Jersey: College Entrance Examination Board, 1966), p.5.

[10]Jacques Barzun, The American University (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968), p. 6.

professor showed his satisfaction with the status quo by warning that "...faculties have thrown out many a college president - and trustees, too - who tried to reform them, and can do it again if necessary."[11] Changes have come to the campus, despite varying degrees of anticipation. Institutions of higher learning are challenged to produce effective solutions that will benefit our country as a whole as well as the individuals concerned.

There is an academic and social revolution going on today in colleges and universities across the United States. New techniques for educating marginal students, the unprecedented growth of community colleges, two-year courses for many types of technicians, are evidence of the awakening social conscience of higher education. The growing numbers of disadvantaged students may be regarded as either a tremendous problem or an enormous opportunity. The response of a college or university often depends upon a few dedicated individuals. The most daring high risk programs seem to have resulted more from the concern of a single individual than from any other factor. Key people with persuasion, flexibility, latitude, and leverage, as well as the support of faculty, administration, and students, are the ones with the most trustworthy programs. Most of them have developed

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[11]Paul H. Davis, "Changes Are Coming in the Colleges," Journal of Higher Education, 33:147, March, 1962.

these programs without detailed knowledge of what is being tried elsewhere in the country.[12]

The literature emphasized that higher education for the disadvantaged is still in the innovative stage. Writers argued that something should be done. Many of the existing programs have changed substantially from year to year depending upon student response, administrative appraisal, and the availability of funds. There are very few solid research studies. Experimental programs have not been planned with the controls that make possible a valid evaluation nor has enough time elapsed for longitudinal studies. Preliminary conclusions reflect as much enthusiasm as proof of accomplishment.

Many institutions have chosen to ignore the question of higher education for the disadvantaged, or, at best, have made a change or two either in response to direct criticism or in an attempt to follow the latest fad for colleges and universities. According to Williams, it is probable that more than fifty per cent of the institutions of higher learning in this country now have special programs for these students; however, most of these programs are currently little more than token efforts. Private institutions have evidenced greater involvement in educating disadvantaged

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[12]Egerton, op. cit., p. 12.

students than have public institutions.[13]

The standards and needs of institutions are just as widely varied as are the standards and needs of individual students. Deciding whether or not a student is "disadvantaged" depends to a large extent upon the standards of a specific college. The two-year community college is easier to get into than other colleges and may have an "open door" policy of admitting any high school graduate.[14] Most colleges define disadvantaged as those whose educational and economic background is considered markedly inferior to that of their regular students. The current trend of raising entrance requirements means that students who would have been qualified for regular admission a few years ago are now denied admission or are admitted on probation. In opposition to this trend, Bowdoin College in Maine recently announced that it would eliminate all college board tests for prospective students.[15] The pressure from disadvantaged students, along with other factors, may cause these examinations to be de-emphasized.

The biggest question facing institutions helping high

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[13]Robert L. Williams, "What Are We Learning from Current Programs for Disadvantaged Students?" The Journal of Higher Education, 40:274, April, 1969.

[14]Thomas E. O'Connell, Community Colleges (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1968), p. 4.

[15]Benjamin Fine, "College Entrance Examination Boards May Be on Decline," Beaumont Journal, January 30, 1970, p. 6.

risk students, or those with negative qualifications for academic success, seems to be whether the students should be accorded special attention or treated in the same manner as all other students. Some say that high risk students have enough problems to be overcome without the stigma of identification as a risk. The opposite argument holds that students who are genuine risks must be given support that is bound to be visible or their chances for success will be greatly reduced. The risk students themselves have mixed emotions about the question. At times they express both resentment and appreciation for either approach.[16]

The high risk student has generally had twelve years of failure or a low level of success in the public schools. Perhaps the approaches to the education of these students should involve teaching methods based on a knowledge of the nature and cause of the disadvantaged's poor school record. Of equal importance, these students need help in raising their aspirations and motivations.

Disadvantaged students often are members of families that need to have a higher sense of their own possibilities and a greater competence and confidence to cope with their daily difficulties. There seems to be valid evidence that to be successful, remedial work can take place only after the

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[16]Egerton, op. cit., p. 14.

student has enjoyed a success experience which raises his self-image and consequently his motivation.[17] Devising an instrument to measure self-image and motivation has been proposed, but is not yet available.

The need is indicated both for raising academic motivation and providing a special program of educational services planned to help these students correct their deficiencies. If an institution insists upon treating all students alike, it is in fact penalizing those with special problems. In addition to academic motivation, the disadvantaged students have a very real need to correct their academic deficiencies, and this is often a major goal of compensatory programs:

> The primary academic objective of most programs is the development of communication skills, especially reading, writing, speaking, and listening. It is reasoned that these students cannot hope to succeed vocationally without the ability to communicate effectively in the mainstream of society. Facility in the use of standard English is considered fundamental to effective communication. An attempt is also being made to remedy the students' deficiency in basic quantitative skills.[18]

It should be noted that language is not a handicap as long as the youth remain within their own culture. The form in which their language is expressed may be quite ade-

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[17]William F. Johntz, "Innovation and the New Concern for the Disadvantaged," California Teachers Association Journal, 63:6, January, 1967.

[18]Williams, op. cit., p. 277.

quate, or even complex; the deviation is significant only when it is inconsistent with the language of the dominant culture. To a large extent, disadvantaged youth have not adopted the standard verbal and written language forms for learning. They do not have the communication skills which are necessary for success in college. They are heavily penalized for this language deficiency by consistently receiving low scores on standardized tests. Only within the last few years has it been seen that standardized tests are:

> ...marvellously efficient constructions by which the social class and environmental background of the child might be accurately measured, yielding evidence, not as to the innate capacity of the child, but of the degree to which the child approximated standard class performance, or varied from that norm.[19]

Test scores seem to have high validity in reflecting the cultural style of the person tested. However, other factors, such as motivation, may have a higher predictive value in gauging the ability of the student to compete with other students in learning new materials.

For all college students, there are heavy demands for conformity and adjustment to new ideas and new loyalties. College is a unique environment with its own standards, its own expectations, and its own pressures. College even has its own vocabulary which must be learned: majors and minors,

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[19]Horace Mann Bond, The Education of the Negro in the American Social Order (New York: Octagon Books, Inc., 1966), p. 475.

course load, advanced standing, prerequisites, grade points, and many others. Occasionally, the student may also be overwhelmed by the many social activities that are available.

The above problems are experienced by most disadvantaged students, who are also quite often the first members of their families to attend college, and so must act as interpreters of this experience to their families. All of these pressures and anxieties are probably intensified for the Negro student at an integrated campus.

A study of Negro students at an integrated campus indicated their greatest areas of concern. Evaluating responses given on the Mooney Problem Check List produced evidence that anxiety was felt by all groups in the areas of: being inadequately prepared for college work, self-improvement, improvement culturally, not enough time for themselves, fear of speaking up in class discussions, fear of making mistakes, religion, and morals.[20] Identification of needs which prevent achievement in academic, social, and personal spheres is the first step in eliminating or minimizing the anxieties of the students. Social and cultural expectations and patterns of behavior may be a large part of this problem:

Self-assertiveness is associated with achievement,

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[20]Lillian K. Vittenson, "Areas of Concern to Negro College Students as Indicated by Their Responses to the Mooney Problem Check List," The Journal of Negro Education, 36:56-7, Winter, 1967.

> but the historical fact is that Afro-Americans have been severely penalized whenever they were out of line... This trained incapacity to be aggressive might be said to retard academic achievement at all levels.[21]

Youth from Negro, southern rural or mountain whites, Puerto Rican, Mexican, and American Indian families have absorbed many cultural attitudes that deviate from those of the wider community. They are disadvantaged to the extent that they lack the experiences, attitudes, and expectations that are common to youth who are academically more successful. Young people who grow up under differing conditions of deprivation and an atypical culture are reported to show disproportionately high rates of social maladjustment, behavioral disturbance, physical disability, and mental subnormality.[22]

From the data of attempts to identify the characteristics of disadvantaged youth, some conditions seem to be general to all. These students often have contradictory attitudes toward themselves and others with a low self-image. They respond more to the concrete, tangible, and immediate properties of objects and situations than to their abstract and relational properties. The effects of a restricted environment include poor perceptual discrimination skills, an impoverished language background, and a lack of information,

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[21]Samuel L. Woodard, "Black Power and Achievement Motivation," The Clearing House, 44:74, October, 1969.

[22]Gordon, op. cit., p. 2.

concepts, and relational propositions.[23] Living conditions often include inadequate housing, shifting family relationships, poverty, and repeated discriminatory treatment.

As yet, very few attempts have been made to specify the positive characteristics of these youth. In a brief list, Frank Riessman includes: cooperativeness and mutual aid that mark the extended family; the avoidance of the strain accompanying competitiveness and individualism; the equalitarianism, in informality and humor; the freedom from self-blame and parental overprotection; the ability to express anger; the freedom from being word-bound; the externally oriented rather than introspective outlook; content-centered not a form-centered mental style; and a problem-centered rather than an abstract-centered approach.[24] These youth have creativity and motivation but not within the traditional framework. Planning an academic approach based on those conditions and behavior which can be built upon for educational improvement is a future possibility.

The vast majority of compensatory programs have been directed toward Negro youth. Disadvantaged youth from other groups have received little attention in existing programs.

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[23]David P. Ausubel, "The Effects of Cultural Deprivation on Learning Patterns," Education and Social Crisis (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), pp. 156-7.

[24]Frank Riessman, "The Overlooked Positives of Disadvantaged Groups," Education and Social Crisis (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), p. 134.

Until approximately 1960, practically all of the compensatory programs in higher education were conducted in Negro colleges for Negro students. In a certain sense, the Negro college is inherently compensatory, just as the regular programs of most junior and community colleges are inherently compensatory. The basic admissions policy, low tuition, and accessibility are part of the regular ongoing programs of these institutions, which consistently attract disadvantaged students.

Today, the predominantly Negro college or university is something of an anachronism, although it will undoubtedly be in existence for many more years. It is estimated that approximately two-thirds of the total Negro enrollment in higher education are attending predominantly Negro colleges and universities. A statistical study representing 92 per cent of all institutions of higher learning in the nation showed the racial composition of first-time students and of degree-seeking students to be 4,232,098 whites, 207,316 Negroes, and 51,855 other non-whites during the fall semester of 1965. Approximately half of the Negroes attending college were in institutions in the south; they generally attend colleges that draw relatively few students from out of state. Negro colleges and universities have been plagued for many years with multiple handicaps: meager library holdings, low pay for faculty members, little equipment for

laboratories, few earned doctorates held by faculty members, and heavy teaching loads.[25]

There is a heavy concentration of Negro students in those colleges that do the poorest job of graduating their students, as shown by a low senior/freshman ratio. The atmosphere at these colleges is often one of flux, instability, and transience caused by students who are enrolled a comparatively short time and do not participate fully in college life, as indicated in the following excerpt:

> More Negro students invest their time and resources in attending college from which they do not receive the major payoff of graduation, and a larger proportion of faculty advisor and instructional time is invested in students whose educational development is aborted before graduation.[26]

The problem of the Negro student attending a Negro college are primarily academic and financial. Those who attend integrated institutions have other problems as well. Although many Negroes entering northern colleges are as able scholastically as any other students on the campus, many other Negroes are not able to overcome their academic deficiencies, no matter how high their motivation. As long as institutions take pride in treating all students just alike, they are, in fact, providing unequal services.

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[25]James S. Coleman et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity, United States Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1966), p. 368.

[26]Ibid., p. 417.

Disadvantaged students generally need financial aid that is not conditional on above average grades and that does not require many hours of work. Some institutions require that scholarship students maintain a "B" grade average; these students must spend much more time and effort to achieve this grade average than do students with stronger academic backgrounds.

For Negroes attending predominantly white colleges, the biggest social problems are dormitory housing and dating. The sensitive Negro is aware of various degrees of curiosity, excessive concern, prejudice, and rejection. Solutions to social problems seem even more nebulous than solutions to more specific problems.

Despite the problems, the present trend is toward integration on all campuses and increasing Negro enrollment at institutions that are already integrated. Joseph T. Durham wrote that "Integration must be an essential ingredient in any meaningful program of compensation."[27] Often an institution that is integrated has an extremely small enrollment of exceptionally well-qualified Negro students. This tends to camouflage the fact that large numbers of Negro youth are in need of help, particularly those of marginal academic ability and low financial resources.

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[27]Joseph T. Durham, "Compensatory Education: Who Needs It?" The Clearing House, 44:18, September, 1969.

A recent study of Negro undergraduates in predominantly white state colleges and universities mentioned several relevant points. At these institutions, desegregation was an established legal fact and was well accepted by the administration, faculty, and the student body. Integrating these students into the campus life was progressing at a variable but slower pace. Integration in normal association was accepted, but only minimal social integration existed.[28]

In the above mentioned study, the Negroes who attended the state institutions did so because they had no real choice; the state colleges and universities were cheaper financially, offered more and better educational opportunities, were more convenient and closer to home. The seven institutions did not provide enough remedial noncredit course work to help the Negroes overcome their deficiencies in the language arts, especially communication. Most of the Negro students obtained their financing from their families or from their own earnings. Little emphasis was placed on giving deserving Negroes financial assistance. It was Bradley's belief that most Negroes would continue to experience academic difficulties in interracial colleges until they have an opportunity to

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[28]Nolen E. Bradley, "The Negro Undergraduate Student: Factors Relative to Performance in Predominantly White State Colleges and Universities in Tennessee," The Journal of Negro Education, 36:15-23, Winter, 1967.

experience interracial education at the elementary school and secondary school level.[29]

The goal of integration at all school levels has been pursued vigorously for several years by many civil rights groups and by individuals at the federal, state, and local level. Much of the impetus for increasing opportunities in higher education for students from disadvantaged areas has originated in the Federal government. The legislation of the 1960's included: the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963; the amendments of 1964 to the National Defense Education Act; the Civil Rights Act of 1964; the National Foundation for the Arts and the Humanities; the Higher Education Act of 1965; and the International Education Act of 1966.[30] These efforts have been encouraged and supported by the Carnegie Foundation, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Ford Foundation, and others.[31]

The most vigorous agents for change are often the Federal agencies, such as the National Institutes of Health, the National Science Foundation, and the United States Office of

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[29] Ibid.

[30] Paul A. Miller, "Reflections on the Federal Government and Higher Education," Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges Reports, 10:3, September, 1967.

[31] Kenneth A. Martyn, Increasing Opportunities in Higher Education for Disadvantaged Students (Sacramento, California: Coordinating Council for Higher Education, 1966), p. 9.

Education. These Federal agencies have the great advantage of being free from the direct operations that restrict the range and vision of many state educational offices.[32]

Even more recent is the Higher Education Amendments of 1968, which will go into effect in fiscal year 1970. They are of importance to thousands of American students who need financial assistance for education. The new legislation authorizes colleges to begin programs of special services to help disadvantaged young people. These services can include counseling, tutoring, summer programs, career guidance and placement, and efforts to encourage students to stay in or come back to college. Students with the potential for graduate or professional education will be encouraged to keep going up the educational ladder.[33]

In the state of Texas, Lamar State College of Technology is offering the previously unavailable freshman year of college in Orange; Texas A and I University is establishing a junior and senior center which will use the facilities of the Laredo Junior College and thus make four years of college available in Laredo. In a letter dated January 14, 1970, Texas A and I University President James C. Jernigan wrote that classes will begin in September, 1970, and preparations

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[32]James A. Perkins, The University in Transition (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1966), p. 81.

[33]Val Trimble, "Student Financial Aid: What, Where, How," American Education, 5:7, February, 1969.

are being made for a full-time equivalent student enrollment of approximately 300 at the junior and senior level.

A fundamental requirement for today's educational system is the need for continuous change and innovation, especially when the world is faced with vast needs for new ideas and for manpower trained in new areas of knowledge. It is possible that in the years ahead "...the greatest change in colleges will be a change in the attitude toward change..." and that "...this altered attitude may bring with it more basic and dramatic transformations than even the optimists envisage."[34]

II. LITERATURE ON COMPENSATORY PRACTICES AND PROGRAMS

A distinction is made between compensatory practices and compensatory programs for the education of disadvantaged students. A compensatory practice is a continuing activity by an institution of higher education which enables a student to enroll or which encourages his continuing success in college. A compensatory program is an organized group of related practices with the same objectives. Compensatory practices may be categorized according to their purpose: college enrollment and academic success after enrollment.

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[34]Davis, loc. cit.

Compensatory practices for college enrollment. During the past few years, vigorous efforts have been made to recruit disadvantaged students. The search for Negro students by prestige institutions in the East has been particularly notable. The Cooperative Program for Educational Opportunity, sponsored jointly by the eight Ivy League and the Seven Sister colleges, undertakes to recruit students qualified for one of the colleges but who would not apply without encouragement. The National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students (NSSFNS) has been involved in the field of recruitment for several years. The College Assistance Project (Hoy Plan), sponsored jointly by NSSFNS and 110 institutions, consists of regional groups of admission and scholarship officials who visit Negro institutions "...to uncover talent and refer it to the right college."[35]

Whether academically talented or not, disadvantaged students generally require financial assistance both to enter college and to remain in college. Many institutions simply are continuing their customary policy of providing scholarship aid and other forms of monetary assistance to individual students who possess demonstrated academic ability. A realistic guide to financial assistance is the University of

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[35]Doxey A. Wilkerson, "Compensatory Education: Theory and Practices," Information Retrieval Center on the Disadvantaged Bulletin, 2:1, March, 1966.

North Carolina's booklet, College Opportunities for Southern Negro Students.[36] Relatively little money is going to students who are academic risks, but programs for the disadvantaged are being strengthened by allocating future funds for this purpose.

Talented disadvantaged students can compete for scholarships as well as college admission on the basis of standards which apply to all students. But youths who are academic risks may require some modification of admissions criteria in order to enter college. Increasing numbers of institutions are making such modifications. Many disadvantaged students whose high school grades and scores on College Board tests, Scholastic Aptitude Test, or other entrance examinations would normally keep them from college are being admitted on the basis of recommendation from their high school or NSSFNS. The academic accomplishments of Negro students provide clear evidence against placing too great an emphasis upon traditional criteria.[37]

Probably the most dramatic compensatory development in higher education during recent years is the variety of

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[36]Ben Spaulding and Tony Mason (eds.), College Opportunities for Southern Negro Students (Chapel Hill, North Carolina: North Carolina University, 1966).

[37]Gloria I. Joseph, "Black Students on the Predominantly White Campus," Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, 32:65, Winter, 1969.

preparatory summer programs for high school students. Most are directed toward talented youth, but some involve the academic risks. The big impetus for this type of program came during the summer of 1964, when hundreds of disadvantaged high school students spent several weeks studying at various colleges and universities. In most cases, the high school students below the senior year are brought to the college, all expenses paid. They are given six to eight weeks of instruction in English, mathematics, study skills, and other fields. Competent high school teachers generally provide the instruction with college students assisting with individual tutoring. Enriching social and cultural experiences are usually offered. Some of the programs call for the students to return in successive years. The general purpose is to identify disadvantaged students with college potential before the end of high school and to strengthen their academic background and motivation.[38]

Thus, special recruiting efforts, financial assistance, modification of admissions criteria, and a wide variety of preparatory programs for high school students or recent graduates have enabled colleges and universities to help many disadvantaged youth to begin college careers. Efforts along these lines constitute the most significant compensatory

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[38]Gordon, op. cit., p. 140.

practices currently used in the field of higher education. One compensatory practice that is sometimes included as both a practice to facilitate entry into college and to help the student succeed following admission is the provision for special counseling and guidance services. Disadvantaged students often need more than the usual amount of help in threading their way through the college maze; they need to have someone with whom to discuss all types of problems.

Compensatory practices for college success. Most of the practices in this category are generally well known. In addition to the guidance and counseling mentioned above, other practices include remedial courses, separate classes, tutoring, lighter course loads, five-year degree programs, special housing arrangements, year-round programs, redesigned curriculums, small-group instruction, intensive orientation to university life, and programmed instruction.

The practice of offering noncredit remedial courses, mainly in English, although still widespread, appears to be losing ground. One explanation seems to be lack of evidence that these courses improved later academic performance. In their place, some colleges are offering tutoring by other college students, small-group instruction, or separate classes.

The practice of encouraging disadvantaged students to carry a lighter course load often leads to a year-round

program or to a five-year degree program. Project Apex, which began at New York University in the fall of 1965, is a compensatory program involving a five-year undergraduate course. Supported by the United States Office of Economic Opportunity, the Project enrolled sixty Negro, Puerto Rican, and white boys who had no expectation of going to college and few formal qualifications for higher education. Although few institutions have extensions of the four-year program such as Project Apex, extra time is frequently available to undergraduates who need it. The implication of this compensatory practice is that academic risk students have a better chance of success if they are allowed more time to devote to each course.[39]

Very few institutions have developed new compensatory curricular practices on the college level; most of them are the usual remedial courses and study skills workshops. Two colleges, however, have developed comprehensive remedial curriculums that have been in use for several years. In 1957, Morgan State College in Maryland started a one-year, noncredit program requiring attendance at a group of special courses. A student's performance in this remedial program determined whether he was dropped permanently or transferred to the regular college program. In 1959, the Woodrow Wilson

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[39]Wilkerson, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

branch of the Chicago City Junior College began to place all entering full-time freshmen who scored in the lowest tenth on a battery of tests in a special one year, noncredit remedial program. Approximately one-third of the entering freshmen are assigned to this program, but a very small percentage go on to finish junior college.[40]

Programmed instruction as a compensatory practice has been tried at Knoxville College in Tennessee and at Whitworth College in Washington.[41] Programmed instruction is effective because deficiencies can be corrected on an individualized basis; sequential arrangement and integration of related materials hastens the learning processes.

The descriptions of compensatory practices are based on incomplete data about continually changing situations. At the present time, these practices are being adopted and modified by an increasing number of colleges and universities in their effort to make higher education more available to students who are not qualified, by traditional criteria, to be admitted.

Compensatory programs. A substantial number of colleges and universities have planned programs for disadvantaged youth

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[40]Gordon and Wilkerson, op. cit., p. 146.

[41]Ibid., p. 147.

by providing a cluster of compensatory practices. At present, this is a developing trend that is becoming more widespread and that involves more colleges and universities every year. A search of the literature shows that several programs have been described in detail; a few surveys have been made that attempt to compare various compensatory programs and to judge the commitment of the colleges and universities to the goal of compensatory education.

One comprehensive survey was analyzed by Edmund W. Gordon. During the spring of 1964, questionnaires were mailed to 2,093 institutions of higher education in the fifty states and District of Columbia. Reports were received from 610 institutions; of that number, only 224 reported that they were conducting a variety of compensatory practices. Although the information on these reports was incomplete and sometimes ambiguous, it appeared that almost half of the institutions with compensatory practices were assisting fewer than thirty disadvantaged students, excluding the summer programs.[42]

In a more recent report of compensatory programs, questionnaires were sent to 215 selected colleges and universities or roughly 13 per cent of all the nation's four-year institutions. Returns from 159 institutions showed 84 of them to have some measure of involvement in what could

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[42] Ibid., pp. 122 ff.

be considered high risk activity, while the other 75 reported no involvement at all. In some cases, it is difficult to ascertain how big a risk they have taken and how far they have gone to achieve success. Of the total, it appears that no more than 20 have drawn extensively from the array of possible supportive elements. No more than 6 or 8 are working with students who are unquestionably high risks. A few of the institutions with well planned compensatory programs are: Wesleyan University in Connecticut, Antioch College in Ohio, the University of California, Harvard University, Southern Illinois University, Cornell University, the University of Michigan, City University of New York, and Virginia Polytechnic Institute.[43]

Most colleges and universities have not yet decided whether they have the responsibility, the resources, the skills, or the desire to serve disadvantaged students. This indecision was described by John Egerton:

> This kind of experimentation is entered into with boldness by some and with fear and trembling by others, and it is variously viewed as admirable sacrifice, misguided idealism, or outrageous tinkering. It is producing some failures on the part of both colleges and students, and some successes that can fairly be called spectacular.[44]

The institutions gave different reasons for initiating

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[43]John Egerton, "High Risk," Southern Education Report, 3:1 ff., March, 1968.

[44]Ibid., p. 3.

these programs: the humanitarian aim of helping young people from disadvantaged social environments and assisting them in overcoming academic deficiencies, conservation of the nation's human resources, research objectives, and the provision of a widely diversified student body for the educational benefit of all. Reasons given for limited or no involvement were: lack of funds, enrollment pressure, political worries, conflict with the institutional mission, fear of lowering institutional standards, lack of faculty support, inflexibility of the institution's system, and priority commitment to regular students. There is some indication that the visibility of the special cases has caused mixed emotions and antagonism on the part of the regular students.

A specific example of a compensatory program that prepares youth to enter college is the College Bound Program, which was established in 1967 by the Board of Education of the City of New York. The aim of this program is to improve the accomplishment of high school pupils in poverty areas and make many more eligible for admission into college. It is by far the largest and most intensive program of its kind that has been attempted by a school system. Recently the American Institute for Research in the Behavioral Sciences selected this program as one of the best twenty-one in the country out of one thousand that were studied.[45]

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[45] Henry T. Hillson, "New York City's College Bound Program," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 53:22 ff., October, 1969.

Now in its third year, the College Bound Program enrolls 9,000 pupils, who are receiving special assistance, in 26 high schools. The first class will be ready for admission into college in September, 1970. Many special provisions have been made for these students, such as personal counseling, trips to college campuses, smaller class enrollments, a major program of cultural enrichment, and a summer program. Curriculum adjustments have been made primarily of the type that would help pupils succeed in the prescribed subject areas. The ratio of one counselor for every one hundred students makes intensive work with them possible. Problems with low aspirations, poor self-image, and poor study habits were those most closely related to academic success. The summer program has been an outstanding and particularly successful part of the entire College Bound effort. Students receive both group and individual instruction in the fields of English and mathematics. Stress is placed on the library and the development of library skills. Preliminary results of this program indicated a higher pupil achievement than would have been possible without it.[46]

Another example of a compensatory program gave students a chance to plan some of their college activities. In preparation for its opening term beginning September, 1968, the

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[46] Ibid.

Federal City College offered a five-week Summer Planning Institute. This new college is the first publicly supported college in the District of Columbia. Prospective students were asked to plan a program of activities. They also were participants in planning sessions with the college faculty and administration, in workshops for curriculum development, in community involvement, and in the library. Selected students served as both tutors and group leaders. Some prospective students could not or would not articulate their feelings and opinions. The Summer Planning Institute was initiated so that student tutor-group leaders could help students express themselves and facilitate communication between students and faculty. Many student suggestions resulted in changes being made; students felt that they needed a special writing skills course which the faculty had previously voted out as unnecessary. After this Summer Planning Institute, it was generally agreed that the student tutor-group leaders could facilitate the learning process in a way that the faculty could not.[47]

Forest Park Community College in St. Louis, Missouri, accepts the lower third of high school classes and the tenth percentile or below on the School and College Ability Test. The program provides assistance through programmed learning,

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[47]Beverly J. Gunstone and Barbara R. Hatton, "Involving Students in the Teaching-Learning Process," Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, 32:80-2, Winter, 1969.

general education, and guidance techniques. Special features include: employment of a full-time social worker, provisions for discussions between the high school community and the college, subsidizing of students to attend cultural events, remission of fees for students who cannot meet financial obligations, continuing workshops for in-service personnel, and the funds and access to expertise to develop materials and experiment with varying approaches in teaching the educationally disadvantaged students.[48]

A large percentage of students entering two-year junior colleges or community colleges today fit one or more of the criteria used to define "disadvantaged." The primary goal of these colleges has traditionally been to serve the whole community, not an elite group. Usually the family incomes of the students are low, students are employed while attending college, and half or more of the entering students in many urban two-year colleges are in need of some type of remedial program before they are ready to undertake degree-credit programs.[49] Most of the students would never have seen the inside of a college classroom had a college not been available in their immediate locale. Most community college planners do not wait

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[48]William Moore, Jr., "Opportunity for the Disadvantaged," Stress and Campus Response (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1968), pp. 234-8.

[49]"Enrolling the Disadvantaged," School and Society, 97:347-8.

for new physical plants to be built. They take temporary locations in old, unused school buildings, in warehouses, in abandoned department stores, and even on farms.[50]

The junior college or community college usually provides three types of courses: academic courses preparing students for entry into four-year institutions, vocational training courses, and courses providing continuing education for adults. The two-year college is primarily a teaching, not a research, institution. Good teachers who keep in contact with the actualities of community life are a vital necessity for maximum benefit to the students. It is unfortunate that there is often a stigma attached to teaching in a two-year college but as Dr. Charles Rollins said in a discussion, "...instructors in community colleges are the low men on the totem pole in the educational hierarchy."[51]

The two-year colleges have other problems besides finding, and keeping, good teachers. There is often little awareness of college community life or participation in extra-curricular activities when all of the students are commuters. Another problem is the lack of geographical diversity among the student body. Paul Woodring wrote that:

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[50]Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., "Junior College Explosion," American Education, 5:15, December, 1968.

[51]John A. Stoops, "Teachers for the Community College," Conference on the Community College in Higher Education (Bethlehem, Pennsylvania: Lehigh University, 1966), p. 62.

> A student who meets throughout his college years only the residents of his own community is almost certain to remain provincial in outlook even though the community is a large city.[52]

Another problem is cited by Robert Havighurst, who wrote that most junior college students prefer the academic rather than the occupational curriculums although they show a very high mortality in the academic curriculum. He suggested the need for appropriate guidance.[53] However, even with the many problems involved, most two-year colleges are doing a very creditable job in providing post-high school education for disadvantaged students.

The scope and variety of compensatory education has accelerated in recent years; an increasing number of institutions of higher learning have accepted some degree of responsibility toward disadvantaged students of college age or younger. This dynamic trend is marked by change and innovation. Some institutions have developed comprehensive compensatory programs, other institutions are experimenting with one or two compensatory practices, and still others are resistant to any change, at least at the present time.

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[52]Paul Woodring, The Higher Learning in America: A Reassessment (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1968), p. 35.

[53]Robert J. Havighurst, "Social Change and the Community College," The North Central Association Quarterly, 41:247-8, Winter, 1967.

III. EVALUATION OF COMPENSATORY PRACTICES AND PROGRAMS

Although the careful evaluation of students' progress is both frequent and comprehensive, the careful appraisal of educational programs is rare. It was anticipated that most of the compensatory programs and practices would be in the planning stage or the first stages of existence. However, a careful evaluation is essential in order to provide reliable guidelines for further developments.

The total number of students being assisted is still comparatively small. The sense of promise and the personal evaluation by the students involved are important aspects that indicate the quality and effectiveness of these practices. These are also very difficult, if not impossible, to measure.

Educational innovations have sometimes been considered "successful" or "unsuccessful" without the use of specific criteria. Enthusiasm, guesswork, and personal opinion have substituted for the application of standard research techniques. The results have been contradictory and ambiguous; the validity of an evaluation is questionable, as well as useless for educational planning and decision making, unless plans for collecting pertinent data are built into compensatory programs and practices at their onset. Depending upon the results desired, data could include an exact description

of the compensatory practice, the circumstances under which it is started, the careful identification of experimental and control groups with criteria used in their selection, and an analysis of the collected data. A compensatory program should be designed to permit assessment of each independent variable.[54]

Published information on the most recent work in this field is meager in important detail. The lack of research may be partially due to the newness of the programs; this is assuredly the reason for the lack of longitudinal studies. Statements on the most exciting, and in many respects the most important programs, have not yet been published. In many cases, pilot grants and even completed studies are not reported in the literature and are not readily available from the various Federal offices.[55]

During the past decade, the Federal government has initiated several precedent shattering programs to provide quality education for disadvantaged youth. Evaluations of these programs have been either so inadequate or nonexistent that Congress and administrators have little information upon which to act. There is little accurate knowledge of what has happened or why. Programs have lacked coordination and adequate utilization of the few results that are known.

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[54] Williams, op. cit., pp. 280-1.

[55] Martyn, op. cit., p. 10.

This prevents the students from getting the maximum benefits from the programs.[56]

In the area of higher education, the Federal government offers a special college preparatory program (Upward Bound), limited recruitment services (Talent Search), and financial aid to disadvantaged students. After almost three full years of operation, the Office of Education could not provide any information on the number of students served or the number of students who have entered college as a result of Talent Search efforts. Upward Bound provides supplementary educational experiences in an effort to prepare high school students for college. Over 10,000 Upward Bound high school seniors have entered college since 1965, and a majority have stayed in. Again, the data are incomplete since records were often not kept up-to-date.[57] An evaluation of the effectiveness of these programs is impossible without adequate data.

Compensatory education has its critics as well as its proponents. Ernest H. Austin, Jr. wrote that it is:

> ...a fanciful and costly dream to believe that the school is a place of miracles and that a larger dose of education emphasizing only skills and attitudes will alleviate cultural deprivation and do away with exten-

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[56] Howard A. Glickstein, "Federal Educational Programs and Minority Groups," The Journal of Negro Education, 38:303-4, Summer, 1969.

[57] Ibid., p. 313.

sive poverty.[58]

He also wrote that he is in possession of critical letters and statements from which are excerpted the following: "bureaucratic harrassment, domination, and rigidity which destroys a balanced program," "greed for money," "typical schooling rather than cultural aid," "de facto segregation," and "general incompetency in dealing with culturally deprived children - teachers not even trained to communicate with them."[59]

Opponents of compensatory education may be reacting emotionally to a specific practice or program that to them seems ineffective or unnecessary. Advocates of compensatory education may be over-enthusiastic about any and every innovation that promises a panacea for educational problems. Both groups suffer from a lack of valid data to substantiate their claims. At the present time, the dearth of research reports precludes an equitable evaluation of the practices and programs of higher education for the disadvantaged student.

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[58] Ernest H. Austin, Jr., "A Parting Shot from a Still Skeptical Skeptic," Education and Social Crisis (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1967), p. 412.

[59] Ibid., p. 413.

CHAPTER III

THE ORANGE EXTENSION CENTER

Physical facilities for the Orange Extension Center, located in a fifteen-classroom building near the Sabine River, were provided by the West Orange-Cove School District for a period of two years. The Greater Orange Chamber of Commerce agreed to pay for utilities, and Lamar agreed to furnish staff members, instructional supplies, and furniture.

Named in honor of William Tilley, a local resident killed in World War II, the former Tilley Elementary School was built about 1942. No major renovations were deemed necessary to convert this building for use by the Center. The floors of some rooms were varnished, the outside trim painted, air conditioners installed in some offices, and adult-size furniture and chalkboards added.

The former principal's office became the office for the Center's director and secretary. One classroom was furnished with desks to serve as an office for all the instructional staff. The cafeteria became a student lounge and snack bar with the addition of vending machines.

One former classroom was converted into a combination bookstore and Library. It was open for five hours every Monday and Wednesday and for three hours every Tuesday and Thursday, or a total of sixteen hours per week. Approximately one thousand volumes from the Lamar Library were

sent to the Center. Many of the books transported were the requests of Orange faculty members; others were chosen by a librarian at Lamar to correlate with the courses being offered.

The Lamar Bookstore sent an initial inventory of $8,500 to the Center. This included 2,112 books, including textbooks, and $300 worth of other supplies. The bookstore at the Center had sales totaling $7,307.54 during the months of September, October, and November, 1969.

The instructional staff consisted of fourteen part-time members and four full time members, one of whom, James R. Harvey, was also the director of the Center. These eighteen faculty members had a combined total of thirty-one degrees from thirteen different colleges and universities. The educational background of each member is shown in Appendix B. They averaged 3.17 years of teaching experience; several were working on higher degrees. Their average age was 30.67; however, with the exclusion of the two oldest members of the faculty, the average age of the remaining sixteen was 27.69 years.

During the fall semester of 1969, there were thirty-five classes being taught in ten different departments representing the School of Liberal Arts, the School of Business, and the School of Fine and Applied Arts. As shown in Figure 1, the Center offered one section of art, four sections of economics, seven sections of English,

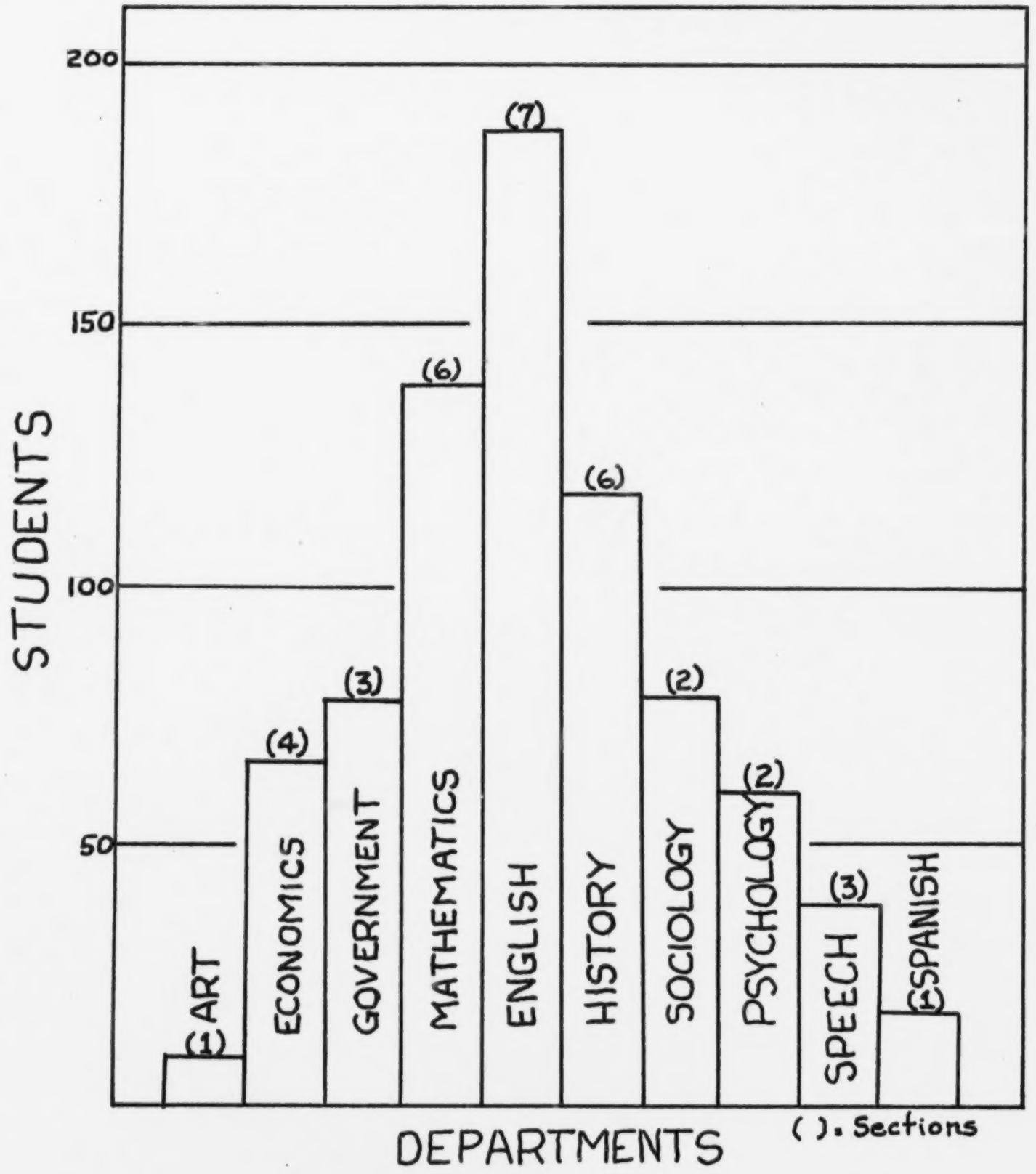

FIGURE 1

DEPARTMENT ENROLLMENT

three sections of government, six sections of history, six sections of mathematics, two sections of psychology, two sections of sociology, one section of Spanish, and three sections of speech. With the exception of sophomore level government classes, the other classes offered were on a freshman level.

Classes met on a Monday-Wednesday or on a Tuesday-Thursday schedule; the Center was closed on Friday, Saturday, and Sunday. Each class period was one hour and fifteen minutes long with the first class starting at 1:00 p.m. and the last class ending at 8:45 p.m. A class schedule is provided in Appendix C.

It was the obligation of the faculty to ascertain that students at the Center would be given examinations and outside assignments comparable in quality, number, and frequency to those required in similar courses on campus. Extension courses were expected to conform to all applicable general or specific college policies and standards.

Students enrolled at the Center met the general admission requirements of Lamar State College of Technology, with one exception. Those students whose score fell below the required 700 Scholastic Aptitude Test score were admitted on a provisional basis. Admittance of these students was encouraged in order to emphasize the distinguishing characteristic and purpose of the Center, that of providing opportunities for educationally disadvantaged

youth. The instructional staff was cognizant of and in accord with this purpose; consequently, they encouraged students having scholastic problems to ask for assistance, and attempted to provide whatever corrections, explanations, enrichment, or reinforcement that seemed to meet the academic needs of the students.

Data concerning the student body at the Center were compiled from the 334 completed questionnaires; however, many questionnaires had one or more unanswered questions, and totals in many categories will reflect these omissions. Data with regard to sex and marital status of the students are shown in Table I. There was a total of 139 men and 195 women students; there were more women than men in every category except the 17-25 age group, which showed 96 men and 76 women. Reflecting the larger number of men in the youngest age group, about half of the men had never been married as contrasted with about a fourth of the women who had never been married. In the divorced and widowed categories, there were 2 men and 16 women. The enrollment for women showed a more even spread for all age categories, while the enrollment for men showed a sharp decline after the youngest age group. An "Over 65" age category was included on the questionnaire; since there were no students in this age group, it will be deleted from all subsequent tables.

Table II and Table III show the number of students

TABLE I

ENROLLMENT BY SEX AND MARITAL STATUS

Age Group	Married	Divorced	Never Married	Widowed	Total
TOTAL MALE ENROLLMENT: 139					
17-25	22	1	72	1	96
26-35	20	0	1	0	21
36-45	15	0	0	0	15
46-65	7	0	0	0	7
Over 65	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL FEMALE ENROLLMENT: 195					
17-25	28	2	45	1	76
26-35	52	4	0	1	57
36-45	32	4	1	1	38
46-65	21	1	0	2	24
Over 65	0	0	0	0	0

NOTE: Of the male enrollment, 68% were 25 years old or younger with 76% of this age group never having been married, compared to 39% and 60%, respectively, for the females, with 58% of the total enrollment composed of female students.

TABLE II

CHILDREN OF MALE STUDENTS

NUMBER OF MALE STUDENTS WHO HAVE CHILDREN: 45					
Age Group:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
No children	86	7	1	0	94
1 child	9	7	2	1	19
2 children	1	6	4	0	11
3 children	0	1	3	5	9
4 children	0	0	3	1	4
5 or more children	0	0	2	0	2

NUMBER OF MALE STUDENTS WHO HAVE CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME: 40					
No children	88	8	2	1	99
1 child	7	6	4	2	19
2 children	1	6	4	3	14
3 children	0	1	2	1	4
4 children	0	0	1	0	1
5 or more children	0	0	2	0	2

NOTE: Of those male students in the 17-25 age group, 90% do not have children, and 92% do not have children living at home.

TABLE III

CHILDREN OF FEMALE STUDENTS

NUMBER OF FEMALE STUDENTS WHO HAVE CHILDREN: 125					
Age Group:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
No children	58	6	4	2	70
1 child	13	8	7	4	32
2 children	4	18	7	6	35
3 children	1	13	12	6	32
4 children	0	7	7	3	17
5 or more children	0	5	1	3	9

NUMBER OF FEMALE STUDENTS WHO HAVE CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME: 114					
No children	59	7	5	10	81
1 child	13	8	11	8	40
2 children	4	18	10	6	38
3 children	0	12	8	0	20
4 children	0	7	4	0	11
5 or more children	0	5	0	0	5

NOTE: Of those female students in the 17-25 age group, 75% had no children, and 78% had no children living at home.

in each age group who were also parents, the number of children the students had, and how many of these children still lived at home. Table II indicates that 45 male students were also fathers and that 40 male students had children living at home. Reflecting the large number of male students who were in the youngest age group and who were also unmarried, there were 99 male students who did not have children living at home. Nineteen of the students had only 1 child, while only 2 of the male students indicated that they were the fathers of 5 or more children. The two youngest age groups contained 21 of the male students who had children living at home; the two oldest age groups contained 19 of those who had children living at home.

Table III presents the number of female students who were also mothers, a total of 125. Of these, 114 female students still had children living at home. In contrast with Table II, the totals in Table III reflect the more even distribution of female students among the four age groups as well as a larger proportion of women who combined parental responsibilities with college enrollment. There were 81 female students who had no children living at home during the fall semester of 1969. There were 40 female students who had only 1 child living at home; totals decreased gradually until the final category which indicated that there were 5 women students with 5 or more children

still living at home. Of those female students in the 17-25 age group, 75 per cent had no children, and 78 per cent had no children living at home. In contrast to the percentages for male students as shown in Table II, the female students in the youngest age group had substantially more parental responsibility.

The number of students employed and the number of hours worked per week by each employed student are presented in Table IV. There were 113 men and 89 women employed, reflecting the larger number of women students who were primarily occupied as housewives and mothers. Of those who were employed, 25 men worked 30 or less hours a week, while 20 of the women were in this category. Of those students in the 17-25 age group, 61 per cent of the males worked 31 or more hours per week compared to 84 per cent of the females. These percentages compare to 100 per cent of the males and 67 per cent of the females in the 26-35 age group. There are two discrepancies in the section of Table IV concerning male employment. Three students in the 17-25 age group and 2 students in the 36-45 age group indicated on the questionnaire that they were employed but failed to complete the question concerning the number of hours worked per week.

Table V shows the race and religion of the students. There were 306 white students and 28 non-white students. An examination of the 1960 United States Census of Popula-

TABLE IV

STUDENT EMPLOYMENT

NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED PER WEEK BY MALES				
Age Group:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65
Employed	70	21	15	7
1-10 hours	2	0	0	0
11-20 hours	9	0	0	0
21-30 hours	13	0	0	1
31-40 hours	32	19	11	3
Over 40 hours	11	2	2	3
NUMBER OF HOURS WORKED PER WEEK BY FEMALES				
Employed	32	24	21	12
1-10 hours	1	1	0	0
11-20 hours	3	5	2	1
21-30 hours	1	2	1	3
31-40 hours	27	12	15	7
Over 40 hours	0	4	3	1

NOTE: Of those students in the 17-25 age group, 61% of the males worked 31 or more hours per week compared to 84% of the females. These percentages compare to 100% of the males and 67% of the females in the 26-35 age group.

TABLE V

RACE AND RELIGION OF STUDENTS

	RACE			
	White	Per cent	Non-White	Per cent
Male	131	43	8	29
Female	175	57	20	71
TOTAL	306	100	28	100

	RELIGION			
	Protestant	Catholic	Other	None
Male	81	22	30	5
Female	148	30	9	4
TOTAL	229	52	39	9

tion revealed that the non-white population in Orange, Texas, was approximately 23 per cent of the total population and that the non-white population in Orange County was approximately 10 per cent of the total population. Barring substantial change in the non-white population percentages since the 1960 census, the Orange and Orange County percentages can be compared with the 8.35 per cent non-white enrollment at the Orange Extension Center during the fall of 1969.

The categories showing religious preference in Table V indicate that a large majority of the students were Protestants. There were 229 Protestants and 52 Catholics. Some of the 39 students who indicated that they preferred a religion other than Protestant or Catholic, then wrote the name of a Protestant sect. This raises the question of how many of the students who marked the "Other" religious category did not realize that their church is considered Protestant. Of the entire enrollment, there were only 9 students who wrote that they had no religious preference.

Tabulations in Table VI show the total number of students who lived in various cities, counties, and states. On the questionnaire, the students were directed to list both a "Permanent Address" and a "Present Address." Forty-one students listed only permanent addresses, which are included in Table VI with the present addresses for the re-

TABLE VI

PRESENT ADDRESS

CITY		COUNTY		STATE	
Orange	261	Orange	287	Texas	333
Bridge City	18	Jefferson	36	Louisiana	1
Beaumont	16	Newton	6		
Port Arthur	11	Hardin	2		
Vidor	11	Jasper	2		
Groves	8	Calcasieu	1		
Newton	6				
Buna	1				
DeQuincey	1				
Nederland	1				

NOTE: Forty-one students did not specify a "Present Address" on the questionnaire. The "Permanent Address" was tabulated for these students.

maining students. Only 1 student was from Louisiana, while the others listed addresses in Texas. The city of Orange was the address for 261 students out of a total enrollment of 334. The county of Orange was listed by 287 students. Jefferson County was the home of 36 students; other tabulated totals are comparatively small.

Table VII shows the number of courses taken by male and by female students. There were 50 male students taking 4 courses, with the next highest number being 38 students taking only 1 course. This is in contrast to the tabulation of the course load of the female students, which shows that 84 students took only 1 course, and the next highest category shows 62 students were taking 2 courses. A comparison of these data with those presented in Table IV indicates that a higher proportion of male students both worked longer hours and took more courses than the female students. Again, this probably represents the younger age and lower level of parental responsibilities of the male students.

Table VIII shows that 14 of the students at the Orange Extension Center were also enrolled in other schools. Twelve of the students attended Lamar and 1 each was enrolled at LaSalle Extension University and McNeese State College. The students were rather evenly divided according to the number of courses that they were taking at the other schools.

TABLE VII

COURSE LOAD

MALE STUDENTS					
Age Group:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
1 course	14	13	6	5	38
2 courses	6	7	8	1	22
3 courses	10	1	1	0	12
4 courses	49	0	0	1	50
5 courses	16	0	0	0	16
6 or more courses	0	0	0	0	0
FEMALE STUDENTS					
1 course	25	26	21	12	84
2 courses	19	25	11	7	62
3 courses	2	3	3	1	9
4 courses	22	3	1	4	30
5 courses	4	0	0	0	4
6 or more courses	1	0	1	0	2

NOTE: Of those students in the youngest age groups, 17-25 and 26-35, 65% of the males were taking 3 or more courses compared to 27% of the females.

TABLE VIII

CONCURRENT ENROLLMENT IN OTHER SCHOOLS

AGE GROUP	MALE	FEMALE
17-25	3	6
26-35	1	2
36-45	0	2
46-65	0	1
Total	4	12

OTHER SCHOOLS	
Lamar State College of Technology	14
LaSalle Extension University	1
McNeese State College	1

COURSE LOAD AT OTHER SCHOOL	
1 course	4 students
2 courses	4 students
4 courses	5 students
5 courses	3 students

Students were asked if they had planned to enroll in a college before the Center was established, and, if so, the name of the college where they had expected to enroll. These data are tabulated in Table IX. Twenty-three schools are listed in rank order according to the number of students who had planned to attend them. There were 121 students who had planned to attend Lamar, and 7 who had planned to enroll at Stephen F. Austin State College. The other colleges or universities were listed by only 1 or 2 students. Three students indicated on the questionnaire that they planned to attend another college, but did not specify which one.

Table X shows the principal reason students gave for enrollment in the Center. Three reasons were mentioned by a majority of the students, 78 per cent, as the most important ones. The location of the Center close to the student's home was mentioned by 42 per cent, which included 50 male students and 93 female students. The fact that class hours permitted the student to be employed was mentioned by 25 per cent, which was evenly divided between 42 male and 41 female students. The Center's provisional admittance of students with a SAT score below 700 was the principal reason given by 11 per cent of the students. Several other reasons were mentioned by a comparatively small number of students.

Table XI reveals the educational background of the students. Of the entire student body, all but ten students

TABLE IX

STUDENTS PLANNING TO ENROLL IN OTHER COLLEGES BEFORE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE ORANGE EXTENSION CENTER

TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS: 160

Specified Schools	Number of Students
Lamar State College of Technology	121
Stephen F. Austin State College	7
McNeese State College	2
Panola Junior College	2
Prairie View A & M	2
Sam Houston State College	2
San Jacinto Junior College	2
Texas A & M	2
Tyler Junior College	2
University of Houston	2
Abilene Christian College	1
Angelina Junior College	1
Blinn Junior College	1
Chenier Business College	1
Florida State College	1
Grayson County Junior College	1
Lamar or Stephen F. Austin	1
Lee College	1
Marshall University	1
Texas Technological College	1
University of Hong Kong	1
West Texas State College	1
Wharton Junior College	1

NOTE: Three students indicated that they had planned to enter another school but did not specify which one.

TABLE X

PRINCIPAL REASONS FOR ENROLLMENT AT THE ORANGE EXTENSION CENTER

	REASON	MALE	FEMALE
1.	Close to residence	50	93
2.	Class hours permit employment	42	41
3.	Below 700 SAT score accepted	19	14
4.	Personal interest in a course	8	12
5.	Combination of Reasons 1 and 3	2	5
6.	Low tuition cost	4	2
7.	Teacher certification requirements	1	5
8.	Class hours permit child care	0	5
9.	Insufficient high school courses	1	3
10.	Desire for a college education	0	4
11.	Could not attend chosen college	1	1
12.	Combination of Reasons 2 and 4	0	2
13.	Smaller classes and student body	1	1
14.	Combination of Reasons 1 and 4	0	2
15.	Miscellaneous reasons mentioned only once	5	7

NOTE: The first three reasons account for 78% of the responses, with 42% mentioning proximity to residence, 25% listing class hours that permit employment, and 11% specifying the acceptance of a SAT score below 700.

TABLE XI

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

MALE STUDENTS					
Age Group:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
High school graduate	94	21	14	6	135
Prior college enrollment	38	14	10	6	68
FEMALE STUDENTS					
High school graduate	75	53	38	23	189
Prior college enrollment	46	27	19	11	103

NOTE: Thirteen students were college graduates at the time of their enrollment in the Orange Extension Center.

indicated that they were graduates of a high school. The remaining ten students may not have answered that question or they may not have been high school graduates. There were 171 students, or slightly over half of the student body, who had been enrolled in a college prior to September, 1969. There were thirteen students who were college graduates at the time of their enrollment in the Center.

The students who had attended college prior to the fall semester of 1969 were asked to list the names of the colleges previously attended; the results are tabulated in Table XII. There were 71 different colleges and universities mentioned, representing a variety of sizes and types of institutions of higher learning. Although most of the students had attended colleges in Texas, a wide geographical range of colleges is represented, extending from California to Sweden. Although most students had attended only one other college previously, some students had attended from two to five other colleges. Totals for each college represent the multiple listings by these students. Ninety-three students had previously attended Lamar and 12 students had attended Stephen F. Austin State College. The other sixty-nine colleges were attended by 9 or less students, with a substantial majority of colleges represented by just 1 student.

The students who had attended college previously

TABLE XII

COLLEGES PREVIOUSLY ATTENDED BY STUDENTS CURRENTLY ENROLLED AT THE ORANGE EXTENSION CENTER

COLLEGE	NUMBER OF STUDENTS
Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College	1
Alvin Junior College	2
Amarillo Junior College	1
Arkansas State University	1
Arkansas University	1
Arlington State College	1
Blinn Junior College	1
Blue Mountain College	1
California State College	1
Chipola Junior College	1
Columbia University	1
Drury College	1
East Texas Baptist College	2
East Texas State University	2
Eastern Illinois University	1
Eastern Oklahoma A & M	1
Florida State College	1
Grambling College	1
Henderson State College	1
Jarvis Christian College	1
Judson College	1
Kilgore Junior College	2
Lamar State College of Technology	93
Laredo Junior College	1
Lasell Junior College	1
Lon Morris Junior College	3
Louisiana Polytechnic Institute	1
Louisiana State University	2
McNeese State College	7
Midwestern University	4
Millsaps College	1
Northeast Louisiana State College	1
Northwestern State College of Louisiana	1
Ohio State University	1
Ohio University	2
Oklahoma A & M	1
Otero County Junior College	1
Panola Junior College	2
Pensacola Junior College	1
Port Arthur College	1

TABLE XII (continued)

COLLEGE	NUMBER OF STUDENTS
Pueblo College	1
Sam Houston State College	9
San Francisco City College	1
South Texas Junior College	5
Southeastern Louisiana College	1
Southern Methodist University	3
Southern University	2
Southwestern University	1
Stephen F. Austin State College	12
Temple Junior College	1
Texas A & M University	1
Texas Christian University	1
Texas College of Arts and Industries	1
Texas College of Mines	1
Texas Technological College	2
Texas Women's University	3
University of Alaska	1
University of California at Los Angeles	1
University of Delaware	1
University of Houston	4
University of North Dakota	1
University of Southwestern Louisiana	3
University of Texas	5
University of Washington	1
Upsala College	1
West Texas State	2
West Virginia University	1
West Virginia Wesleyan College	1
Westchester Community College	1
Wharton Junior College	2
Wiley College	1
TOTAL NUMBER OF COLLEGES:	71
TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS:	221

NOTE: Lamar, Sam Houston, and Stephen F. Austin account for 51% of the students who had previously attended college; Lamar accounted for 42%, and the other two were almost equal at 4% and 5%, respectively.

If students attended two or more colleges, they are included in the total of each college attended.

were asked to state the number of semester hours that they had earned and the date of their last attendance at college. The results of these questions are tabulated in Table XIII. There were 93 students who had earned less than 30 hours credit. An additional 63 students indicated that they had over 30 semester hours credit, and 16 students did not know how many semester hours credit they had accumulated. The date of previous college attendance is tabulated according to decades. There were 136 students who had previously attended college in the 1960's, 16 students during the 1950's, 12 students during the 1940's, and only 2 students had last attended college during the 1930's. Of the students providing this information on the questionnaire, 61 per cent reported the years 1967-1969 as the date of last attendance at college. There were 122 students who left their previous college in good standing, 32 on scholastic probation, and 4 on scholastic suspension.

Table XIV shows the number of students who expected to receive degrees and what their tentative major field of study was. Of the male students, there were 118, or 72 per cent, who wrote that they expected to receive degrees. Of the female students, there were 150, or 44 per cent, who wrote that they expected to receive degrees. Since the students were asked to write their major field of study, some of them wrote major field categories that are not included in the Lamar catalog. The largest group of students were the

TABLE XIII

SEMESTER HOURS COMPLETED AND DATES OF LAST ATTENDANCE AT COLLEGE

SEMESTER HOURS COMPLETED PRIOR TO SEPTEMBER, 1969

Semester Hours	Number of Students
0-29	93
30-59	27
60-89	12
90-119	4
120 or above	20
Do not know	16
Total	172

DATE OF LAST ATTENDANCE AT COLLEGE

Year	DECADE 193-	194-	195-	196-
0			1	5
1		1		4
2		3	2	7
3			1	5
4			3	2
5	2	2	1	5
6		1	2	7
7		1	2	14
8		3	3	25
9		1	1	62
Total	2	12	16	136

NOTE: The 1967-1969 period was reported by 61% of the students as the date of their last attendance at college.

TABLE XIV

STUDENTS EXPECTING TO RECEIVE COLLEGE DEGREE AND THEIR MAJOR FIELDS OF STUDY

EXPECT TO COMPLETE DEGREE REQUIREMENTS					
Age Group:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Male	85	19	10	4	118
Female	66	47	24	13	150

TENTATIVE MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY*	
Number of Students	Major Field
54	Elementary Education
43	Business
15	Engineering
13	Professional Nurse, Sociology
12	Education, Secretarial Science
9	Biology
8	Accounting, Art, History
7	Mathematics, Physical Education
6	English, Psychology, Secondary Education
3	Home Economics, Music, Speech
2	Electrical Engineering, Journalism, Marketing
1	Agriculture, Aviation, Civil Engineering, Drama, Electronics, Government, Industrial Engineering, Law, Pharmacy, Social Work, Veterinary Medicine, Vocational

*These major field categories were written by the students and do not necessarily correspond with those in Lamar's catalog.

NOTE: Of the male students, 72% expect to complete degree requirements, while only 44% of the female students expect to do so. Of those students reporting a major field of study, 66% chose either elementary education or business.

54 who chose elementary education, followed by 43 students who chose business. The remaining thirty-two categories that were listed were chosen by a decreasing number of students.

Table XV tabulates the answers that students gave when asked their main reason for attending college. A wide majority, 66 per cent of the students, wrote that their main purpose was to obtain a college degree which was required for their future career. A smaller group, just 15 per cent, wrote that they were attending college for personal interests unrelated to a career, and 11 per cent of the students were attending college to upgrade skills needed in their present position. Five additional reasons were listed by 8 per cent of the students.

Students were asked how they first heard about the Orange Extension Center; Table XVI shows the results. There were 190 students who first heard of the Center by reading a newspaper and another 93 who first heard of the Center by talking with other people. An insignificant number of students had first heard of the Center on the radio or television; this might indicate that a more effective publicity program by these media would widen the range of people receiving information concerning the Center.

Table XVII and Table XVIII reveal information concerning the educational level and occupations of both the mothers and the fathers of the students. The data given in

TABLE XV

REASON FOR ATTENDING COLLEGE

Age Group: ( )=Per cent	17-25	26-35	36-45	45-65	Total
To obtain degree required for future career.	134 (40)	54 (16)	24 (7)	9 (3)	221 (66)
To upgrade skills needed in present position.	11 (3)	6 (2)	13 (4)	8 (2)	38 (11)
For personal interests unrelated to a career.	15 (5)	15 (5)	8 (2)	10 (3)	48 (15)
Other reasons.*	12 (4)	3 (1)	8 (2)	4 (1)	27 (8)
TOTAL	172 (52)	78 (24)	53 (15)	31 (9)	334 (100)

*Other reasons, as written by the students, were: "have degree but need this course," "better job," "undecided about career," "teacher certification," and "insufficient high school courses."

TABLE XVI

COMMUNICATION MEDIUM BY WHICH STUDENTS FIRST HEARD OF THE ORANGE EXTENSION CENTER

Age Group:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Television	4	3	0	0	7
Newspaper	78	50	40	22	190
Radio	1	2	1	0	4
Conversation	63	18	6	6	93
Other	21	4	4	3	32
				Total	326

TABLE XVII

SUMMARY OF EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF STUDENTS' PARENTS

FINAL YEAR OF EDUCATION COMPLETED BY PARENTS					
Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Elementary					
1		1			1
2	1	2	1		4
3	1	1	2	2	6
4	3	4		1	8
5	2		3		5
6	4	4	5	4	17
7	9	7	1	2	19
8	30	22	17	8	77
High School					
9	15	5	2	2	24
10	8	8	10	3	29
11	21	16	6	4	47
12	145	48	28	8	229
College					
1	18	5	2	2	27
2	24	5	4	1	34
3	9	3			12
4	22	6	3	2	33
Graduate					
1					
2	3				3
3	6	3		2	11
				Total	586

NOTE: The 17-35 age groups represent 78% of the total, with the 17-25 group accounting for 56%. Of the 17-25 group, 15% of the parents attended elementary school only, 60% high school, and 25% college or above. For the 26-35 age group, these percentages are 31%, 59%, and 17%, respectively.

TABLE XVIII

SUMMARY OF OCCUPATIONS OF STUDENTS' PARENTS

Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Occupations of Parents					
Professional and technical	51	16	8	8	83
Managers, officials, proprietors	21	23	5	3	52
Clerical workers	18	14	5		37
Salesworkers	14	6	2	2	24
Craftsmen, foremen	62	29	17	6	114
Operatives	26	5	2	1	34
Laborers (non-farm)	13	7	3		23
Private household workers	5				5
Other service workers	21	2	1	6	30
Farm workers	3	4	4	3	14
Housewife	90	36	37	16	179
				Total	595

NOTE: These data are classified according to the sex of the parent and the sex of the student in Table XXXV, Table XXXVI, Table XXXVII, and Table XXXVIII, located in Appendix D.

these two tables are classified by sex of the student and sex of the parent in an additional eight tables in Appendix D. Table XVII shows that the final year of education attained by the largest number of parents of students was the twelfth grade or the final year of high school, which was completed by 229 parents. The 17-25 age group accounted for 56 per cent of the parents; of this group, 15 per cent of the parents attended elementary school only, 60 per cent completed their education at the high school level, and 25 per cent attended college or graduate school. Many students did not answer the questions about their parents as shown by the totals on Table XVII and XVIII; the totals on both tables would have been 668 if all students had answered the questions relating to these data. Table XVIII shows that the occupation of the largest number of parents is that of housewife. The next largest category is that of craftsman or foreman, an occupation held by 114 parents; there are 83 parents classified as professional and technical workers.

Based on the data contained in the questionnaire, a profile of the typical student at the Center shows a married woman in the 26-35 age group with two children living at home. She was enrolled in one course and also worked 31-40 hours a week. As a resident of Orange, Texas, her main reason for enrolling in the Center was that it was close to her home. She was white, Protestant, and had not

planned on enrolling in another college prior to the opening of the Center. She was a high school graduate and expected to complete a degree in the major field of elementary education. She first heard about the Center by reading about it in a newspaper. Both of her parents were high school graduates; her father was a craftsman or foreman, and her mother was a housewife.

In contrast, the typical male student was in the 17-25 age group and had never been married. He was enrolled in four courses and also worked 31-40 hours a week. His principal reason for enrolling in the Center was its location close to his home in Orange, Texas. He was a high school graduate who had not previously enrolled in another college. He had not planned to enroll in a college in the fall of 1969 until he read about the Center in a newspaper. He expected to complete his degree in order to enter a business career. Both of his parents were high school graduates; his father was a craftsman or foreman, and his mother was a housewife.

An analysis of the Orange Extension Center reveals a college world in microcosm, with the rudiments of a college education available for the first time in the city of Orange, Texas. Because of the brief organization and planning period prior to the establishment of the Center, there were many challenges to be met and problems to be solved, especially during the first few weeks of the fall semester.

These problems ranged from the mechanics of registration procedures to questions in administration, instruction, and use of the building facilities. Helping to smooth the transition to routine procedures was the fact that all of the instructors and over half of the students had previously been enrolled in other colleges. The academic success of the students will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF THE STUDENTS

At the conclusion of the fall semester in January, 1970, the students at the Center received semester grades in those courses in which they were enrolled. The twelve tables in this chapter illustrate the relationship between the students' semester grade averages and aspects of their personal, educational, or family background as indicated on the questionnaire. There were nine students who withdrew from the Center, and the table totals in this chapter will reflect the lower number. Semester grade averages are composed only of grades A, B, C, D, and F. The grades A, B, and C are assigned the grade point values of 3, 2, and 1, respectively, while grades D and F are of 0 point value. Other grades, such as Q or I, were not included in the semester grade averages. Neither do the tables reflect the number of students who withdrew from some courses but remained in others.

In Table XIX, the students' semester grade averages are related to the number of courses in which each student was still enrolled at the end of the semester. The semester grade point average for all students was 1.5. Approximately one-sixth of the students earned an A average, while almost half of the students taking four courses had a D average. A significantly higher level of achievement

TABLE XIX

STUDENTS' SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES
AS RELATED TO COURSE LOAD

SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGE:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
Course Load						
1	33	44	33	0	20	130
2	13	28	31	5	6	83
3	2	4	14	8	6	34
4	1	10	18	25	4	58
5	0	5	9	3	1	18
6	0	2	0	0	0	2
TOTAL	49	93	105	41	37	325

SEMESTER GRADE POINT AVERAGE FOR ALL STUDENTS: 1.5

NOTE: Students taking a maximum of 2 courses show a significantly higher level of achievement with 55% making B or higher and only 15% making D or lower, compared to 21% and 42%, respectively, for those taking 3 or more courses.

was shown by students taking a maximum of 2 courses when compared with students taking 3 or more courses. Of those students with fewer courses, 55 per cent made B or higher and only 15 per cent made D or lower, compared to 21 per cent and 42 per cent, respectively, for those taking 3 or more courses.

Table XX and Table XXI contain the data found in Table XIX tabulated according to sex. Table XX indicates the male students' semester grade averages as related to course load, and Table XXI contains the same data for female students. Two male students dropped out before the end of the semester, leaving a total of 137. The semester grade average for male students was 1.0, which contrasts with the 1.8 average for female students. Of the male students taking a maximum of 2 courses, 35 per cent made a B or higher average, and 22 per cent made a D or lower average. Of the male students taking 3 or more courses, 9 per cent made a B or higher average and 51 per cent made a D or lower average. Half of the male students taking four courses earned a D semester grade average.

The tables in Chapter III showed that 195 female students had completed the questionnaire in November of 1969, but only 188 finished the semester as shown in Table XXI. More female students earned a semester grade average of B than any other grade, and the number of students earning A and C semester grade averages was approxi-

TABLE XX

MALE STUDENTS' SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES
AS RELATED TO COURSE LOAD

SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGE:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
Course Load						
1	4	13	19	0	8	44
2	2	5	10	1	6	24
3	0	1	12	7	5	25
4	0	2	9	15	4	30
5	0	3	7	3	1	14
6	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	6	24	57	26	24	137

SEMESTER GRADE POINT AVERAGE FOR MALE STUDENTS: 1.0

NOTE: Male students taking a maximum of 2 courses show a significantly higher level of achievement with 35% making B or higher and 22% making D or lower compared with 9% and 51%, respectively, for those taking 3 or more courses.

TABLE XXI

FEMALE STUDENTS' SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES
AS RELATED TO COURSE LOAD

SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGE:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
Course Load						
1	29	31	14	0	12	86
2	11	23	21	4	0	59
3	2	3	2	1	1	9
4	1	8	9	10	0	28
5	0	2	2	0	0	4
6	0	2	0	0	0	2
TOTAL	43	69	48	15	13	188

SEMESTER GRADE POINT AVERAGE FOR FEMALE STUDENTS: 1.8

NOTE: Of the female students taking a maximum of 2 courses, 65% made a grade of B or higher compared to 42% of those taking 3 or more courses. Only 11% of those students taking a maximum of 2 courses made a D or lower average compared to 28% of those taking 3 or more courses.

mately the same. Of the female students taking a maximum of 2 courses, 65 per cent made a grade of B or higher and 11 per cent made a D or lower average. Of the female students taking 3 or more courses, 42 per cent made a semester average of B or higher and 28 per cent made a D or lower average.

Table XXII tabulates semester grade averages as they correlate with marital status and with the four age groups. The averages for married students were appreciably higher than the averages for students who were not married. Because of the small number of divorced and widowed students, they were added to the group of students who had never been married. Among the married group, the largest number of students had B and C semester averages, while among the group that is not married, the largest number of students had C and D semester averages. There was a total of 194 married students and a total of 131 students who were not married. The age group 17-25 contained more than twice as many students as any other age group. More students had a B semester grade average than any other grade in the age groups 26-35 and 46-65. In the 36-45 age group, an equal number of students earned B and C averages. The largest number, as well as percentage, of students earning an A average were in the 26-35 age group, followed by the next largest number of students earning an A average in the 36-45 age group. The largest number and percentage of stu-

TABLE XXII

SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES CORRELATED WITH MARITAL STATUS AND AGE GROUPS

Semester Grade Averages:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
MARITAL STATUS						
Married	43	67	67	3	14	194
Not married (includes divorced and widowed)	6	26	38	38	23	131
TOTAL	49	93	105	41	37	325
AGE GROUPS						
17-25	9	33	54	40	29	165
26-35	18	32	25	1	2	78
36-45	14	17	17	0	3	51
46-65	8	11	9	0	3	31
TOTAL	49	93	105	41	37	325

dents earning an average of F were in the youngest age group, as were 40 out of 41 students earning a I average.

In Table XXIII, semester grade averages are tabulated according to the number of hours worked per week by the students. The largest number of students, 146, worked 30 or more hours per week; the semester grade average earned by the largest number of these students was a C. The next largest number earned a B average. There were 134 students who were not employed at all; the semester grade average earned by the largest number of these students was a B, while the next largest number earned a C average. The lower sections of Table XXIII separate the data according to either male or female students. The category with the largest number of male students is the C semester grade average of students who worked 30 or more hours per week. The smallest category contained 1 male student who had an A average and was not employed. The category with the largest number of female students contained 41 students with a B average who were not employed. In the smallest category, there were 2 students with an F average who worked between 1 and 30 hours per week.

Table XXIV indicates the relationship between semester grade averages and both sex and race. Female students did significantly better than male students with 60 per cent earning B or better averages compared to 22 per cent for the males. Only 15 per cent of the female students

TABLE XXIII

SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES ACCORDING TO HOURS WORKED PER WEEK

Semester Grade Averages:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
Number of Hours Worked						
0	25	43	30	22	14	134
1-30	7	10	15	7	6	45
30+	17	40	60	12	17	146
TOTAL	49	93	105	41	37	325
MALE STUDENTS ONLY						
0	1	2	7	11	8	29
1-30	0	3	11	7	4	25
30+	5	19	39	8	12	83
TOTAL	6	24	57	26	24	137
FEMALE STUDENTS ONLY						
0	24	41	23	11	6	105
1-30	7	7	4	0	2	20
30+	12	21	21	4	5	63
TOTAL	43	69	48	15	13	188

TABLE XXIV

SEX AND RACE AS RELATED TO
SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES

Semester Grade Averages:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
Male	6	24	57	26	24	137
Female	43	69	48	15	13	188
TOTAL	49	93	105	41	37	325
White						
Male	6	23	56	22	22	129
Female	43	68	42	10	7	170
Non-White						
Male	0	1	1	4	2	8
Female	0	1	6	5	6	18
TOTAL	49	93	105	41	37	325

NOTE: Female students did significantly better than male students with 60% earning B or better averages compared to 22% for the males, while only 15% of the females made D or lower averages compared to 36% for the males. Of the non-white students, 65% made D or lower averages compared with 20% of the non-white students.

made D or lower averages compared to 36 per cent for the males. The small number of non-white students makes generalizations questionable, but with 65 per cent making D or lower averages compared with 20 per cent for white students, it is apparent that this group of non-white students had academic problems. A semester grade of C was made by 33 per cent of the white students and 27 per cent of the non-white students. There were 7 white students who dropped out of school before the end of the fall semester, and 2 non-white students.

The effect of prior college enrollment on students' semester grade averages is shown in Table XXV. There were 165 students with prior college experience and 160 students who had not been enrolled previously in a college. Prior college enrollment showed a significant correlation with academic success at the Center only for the male students. Of the males who had previously been enrolled in college, 74 per cent made a C or better average compared to 53 per cent without prior college experience. Of the female students who had previously been enrolled in college, 87 per cent made a C or better average compared to 83 per cent without prior college experience.

Table XXVI shows the relationship of semester grade averages and students' plans for a college degree. Approximately similar semester grade averages were earned by both groups of students, those who expected to receive

TABLE XXV

THE EFFECT OF PRIOR COLLEGE ENROLLMENT ON STUDENTS' SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES

Semester Grade Averages:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
PREVIOUSLY ENROLLED IN COLLEGE						
Male	5	14	30	8	9	66
Female	26	36	24	7	6	99
TOTAL	31	50	54	15	15	165
NOT PREVIOUSLY ENROLLED IN COLLEGE						
Male	1	10	27	18	15	71
Female	17	33	24	8	7	89
TOTAL	18	43	51	26	22	160

NOTE: Prior college enrollment showed a significant correlation with academic success at the Center for the male students only. Of the males who had previously been enrolled in college, 74% made C or better averages compared to 53% without prior college experience. The corresponding percentages for females were 87% and 83%.

TABLE XXVI

SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES CORRELATED WITH STUDENTS' PLANS FOR COLLEGE DEGREE

Semester Grade Averages:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
STUDENTS WHO HAVE OR EXPECT TO RECEIVE DEGREE						
Male	6	20	50	23	21	120
Female	35	58	39	14	9	155
TOTAL	41	78	89	37	30	275
STUDENTS WHO DO NOT EXPECT TO RECEIVE DEGREE						
Male	0	4	7	3	3	17
Female	8	11	9	1	4	33
TOTAL	8	15	16	4	7	50

NOTE: Regardless of degree expectations, more male students had a C and more female students had a B than any other grade average.

a degree and those who did not. The percentage differences were not large enough to be significant. Motivation to complete a degree did not result in higher grade averages. Regardless of degree expectations, the largest number of male students had a C semester grade average, while the females had a B average.

In Table XXVII, the educational level of the students' fathers is correlated with the students' semester grade averages. Among the students whose fathers attended elementary school only, 86 per cent had C or above averages and 14 per cent had D or below averages. Among students whose fathers attended high school, 74 per cent had C or above averages and 26 per cent had D or below averages. Among students whose fathers attended college or graduate school, 69 per cent had C or above semester averages and 31 per cent had D or below averages. The correlation between the educational background of the fathers and the grades of the students shows an inverse relationship. The more education the fathers have, the greater the percentage of D or F semester averages, and the lower the percentage of students is who have C or above averages. This reverses the usual pattern. It is possible that the children of parents who had only an elementary school background had more motivation to succeed at the Center. It is also possible that the students whose fathers had college or graduate school backgrounds were among the thirty-six who were on scholas-

TABLE XXVII

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF STUDENTS' FATHERS CORRELATED WITH STUDENTS' SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES

	FINAL YEAR OF EDUCATION COMPLETED BY FATHERS					
Semester Grade Averages:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
Elementary						
1		1				1
2		2	1			3
3		1	4			5
4		2	3		2	7
5			3			3
6	2	5	3	3		13
7	2	3	5		1	11
8	2	11	20	3	2	38
High School						
9	3	2	5	2	2	14
10	3	6			2	11
11	2	3	4		3	12
12	18	34	25	15	13	105
College						
1	2		3	3	1	9
2	5	3	2	6	3	19
3	1	2	5			8
4		2	7	2		11
Graduate						
1						
2		1		1	1	3
3	1	6	2	1	1	11
TOTAL	41	84	92	36	31	284

NOTE: Of the students whose fathers attended elementary school only, 38% had A or B averages and 14% had D or F averages. Corresponding percentages for students whose fathers attended high school are 50% and 26%; for fathers with college or above education, 38% and 31%.

tic probation or scholastic suspension or among the thirty-three students whose principal reason for attending the Center was the acceptance of a SAT score below 700. Also, the total number of fathers reported is fifty less than the total number of students, and this would affect the validity of any conclusions.

In Table XXVIII, the educational level of the students' mothers is correlated with the students' semester grade averages. Among the students whose mothers attended elementary school only, 85 per cent had C or above averages and 15 per cent had D or F averages. Among students whose mothers attended high school, 80 per cent had C or above averages while 20 per cent had D or F averages. Among students whose mothers attended college or graduate school, 74 per cent had C or above averages while 36 per cent had D or below. As in Table XXVII, the same inverse correlation exists between the grades of the students and the education of the mother. The less education the mothers had, the greater the percentage of students who had C or above averages. The more education the mothers had, the greater the percentage of students who had D or F averages. As in Table XXVII, over 10 per cent of the mothers are not included in this table.

Table XXIX relates the occupations of fathers to semester grade averages. The largest group of students, 38 per cent, reported that their fathers were craftsmen or

TABLE XXVIII

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF STUDENTS' MOTHERS CORRELATED WITH STUDENTS' SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES

	FINAL YEAR OF EDUCATION COMPLETED BY MOTHERS					
Semester Grade Averages:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
Elementary						
1						
2			1			1
3	1					1
4		1				1
5			1			1
6	1		2		1	4
7		1	4			5
8	4	13	11	2	4	34
High School						
9	1	3	2	1	1	8
10	2	6	8		1	17
11	4	8	11	3	4	30
12	17	37	39	16	9	118
College						
1	1	3	5	6	2	17
2	3	5	3	1	4	16
3	1	2		1	1	5
4	5	5	8	4	2	24
Graduate						
1					1	1
2					1	1
3	1	2		2		.5
TOTAL	41	86	95	36	31	289

NOTE: Of the students whose mothers attended elementary school only, 45% had A or B averages and 15% had D or F averages. Corresponding percentages for students whose mothers attended high school are 42% and 20%; for mothers with college or above education, 41% and 36%.

TABLE XXIX

SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES AS RELATED TO OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS

Semester Grade Averages:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
Occupations of Fathers						
Professional and technical	5	11	5	6	5	32
Managers, officials, proprietors	8	15	14	4	2	43
Clerical workers	1	3	5			9
Salesworkers		4	1	2	2	9
Craftsmen, foremen	18	24	44	8	14	108
Operatives		9	12	6	4	31
Laborers (non-farm)	3	6	7	5	1	22
Private household workers						
Other service workers	2	4	4	4	3	17
Farm workers	3	7	2		1	13
TOTAL	40	83	94	35	32	284

NOTE: The occupational classification of "Craftsmen, foremen" constituted 38% of the fathers' occupations and was by far the largest category.

foremen. Of this group, there were 42 students who had A or B averages, 44 with a C, and 22 with a D or F. In contrast, the students whose fathers were professional or technical in occupation classification had only a few more A or B averages than D or F averages, and a comparatively small number had a C average. Among students whose fathers were managers, officials, or proprietors, there were almost four times as many students with an A or B average as with a D or F, which is the highest percentage of above average grades of all the occupation classifications. As in Table XXVII, there are fifty fathers who are not reported in this table.

Table XXX relates the occupations of mothers to semester grade averages. The largest group of students, 59 per cent, reported that their mothers were housewives. Of this group, there were 78 students who had A or B averages, 58 with a C, and 38 with D or F averages, or almost twice as many with high averages as there were students with low averages. The next largest group of students, 16 per cent, had mothers who were in occupations classified as professional or technical. Of this group, there were 21 students with an A or B average, 14 with a C, and 14 with a D or F average. The students whose mothers were clerical workers had the highest percentage of A or B averages, 14 out of a total of 26 students whose mothers were in this classification. Over 10 per cent of the mothers

TABLE XXX

SEMESTER GRADE AVERAGES AS RELATED TO OCCUPATIONS OF MOTHERS

Semester Grade Averages:	A	B	C	D	F	Total
Occupations of Mothers						
Professional and technical	9	12	14	7	7	49
Managers, officials, proprietors		4	4	1	1	10
Clerical workers	5	9	10	1	1	26
Salesworkers	1	5	5		4	15
Craftsmen, foremen		1			1	2
Operatives	2			1		3
Laborers (non-farm)						
Private household workers		1		3	1	5
Other service workers	1	2	5	3	2	13
Farm workers						
Housewife	26	52	58	22	16	174
TOTAL	44	86	96	38	33	297

NOTE: The "Housewife" classification contains 59% of the mothers; the classification with the next largest number of mothers is "Professional and technical," which accounts for 16% of the mothers.

are not included in this table.

The tables in this chapter show that the higher semester grade averages were made by female students taking only 1 course. Married students in the older age groups did better than the youngest age group. A higher percentage of students who were not employed made better grades than working students. Prior college experience seemed to result in higher grades for the male students only, while semester grade averages were similar for students who expected to receive a degree and those who did not. The correlation between the educational background of the parents and the grades of the students shows an inverse relationship. The more education the parents had, the higher the percentage of students with D or F semester averages and the lower the percentage of students who had C or above averages. The highest percentage of above average grades was earned by students whose fathers were managers, officials, or proprietors and by students whose mothers were clerical workers.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Orange Extension Center has been discussed from its organizational background through the completion of its first semester. Since the Center was established with the goal of providing higher education for disadvantaged students, the review of the literature tried to determine what practices and programs had been used in other colleges and universities, and if the outcome justified the effort involved. Data concerning the students at the Center have been analyzed, in a partial attempt to assess the response of disadvantaged students to the Center. The fall semester grades have been correlated with various factors based on both the personal and educational backgrounds of the students.

I. CHAPTER SUMMARIES

In Chapter I, it was stated that the Orange Extension Center was established on an experimental basis for the academic year 1969-1970. Many years of interest and effort preceded the opening of facilities for higher education in Orange. After two elections to create a college district were defeated, plans were tentatively begun to investigate the feasibility of opening a branch of Lamar in Orange. Definite approval could not be given until June, when the

new president of Lamar was named and final arrangements were made to open the Center in September. The first chapter also stated the problem of this study, which was to describe the Orange Extension Center and to evaluate the students' academic achievement at the end of the first semester. The importance of the study was mentioned, terms were defined, and limitations explained. The self-report questionnaire was described, and its method of administration clarified.

Chapter II was a review of the literature which covered the background and current interest in education for disadvantaged students, the resulting compensatory programs and practices, and a critical evaluation of the results. Although there were some nineteenth century instances of concern for the education of the disadvantaged, resulting primarily in the establishment of Negro colleges, the widespread thrust toward action has been a phenomenon of the 1960's. Compensatory practices were categorized according to their purpose: college enrollment and academic success after enrollment. Practices to encourage college enrollment included special recruiting efforts, financial assistance, modification of admissions criteria, and a wide variety of preparatory programs for high school students. Practices to promote college success included remedial courses, tutoring, lighter course loads, five-year degree programs, special housing arrangements, year-

long programs, redesigned curriculums, small-group instruction, intensive orientation to college life, and programmed instruction. A compensatory program was defined as an organized group of related compensatory practices. At the present time, it is not possible to evaluate either practices or programs with any degree of validity due to the lack of reports based on standard research techniques, the lack of longitudinal studies, the comparatively small number of students involved in most practices or programs, and the substitution of enthusiasm and personal opinion for specific criterion measures.

A discussion of the building facility, instructors, and student body of the Orange Extension Center was included in Chapter III. The Center was housed in a former elementary school; it contained the rudiments of a bookstore, library, and snack bar. There were four full time instructors, one of whom was also the director of the Center, and fourteen part-time instructors. The staff, which was comparatively young and inexperienced, taught thirty-five classes in ten different departments. The description of the student body was based on data from the completed questionnaires. A large majority of the students were residents of Orange, whose principal reason for attending the Center was its proximity to their home. The largest group of male students was young and unmarried; female students were more evenly divided among the various age

groups and were usually married and had children. Most of the students expected to complete requirements for a degree, and over half of the student body had been enrolled in a college prior to the fall semester of 1969.

In Chapter IV, the academic achievement of the students during the fall semester at the Center was investigated. The evaluation was based on the semester grade averages, which was the only measurement available for all students. Tabulations of these averages were correlated with various data from the questionnaire. The semester grade point average for all of the students at the Center was 1.5; male students had a slightly lower grade point average of 1.0, and female students had a slightly higher grade point average of 1.8. However, all of these averages were within the range of a "C" grade. Married students tended to make higher grades than unmarried students. The youngest age group earned the largest percentage of both the highest and the lowest grades. Semester grade averages were also related to such factors as employment, race, prior college enrollment, plans to complete requirements for a degree, and parents' education and employment.

II. DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS AT THE CENTER

The available data can provide a tentative, rather than a positive, identification of the students at the Center who might be called disadvantaged. Table XI showed

that over half of the student body had attended college previously, and Table XII listed 71 different colleges and universities attended by these students. This would presuppose a student body comparatively experienced and competent at the college level; however, this supposition is challenged by examination of subsequent data. Table XIII shows that only 63 students, or approximately one-fifth of the student body, had completed over 30 semester hours credit, and Table XII confirms that a large majority of the various colleges listed were attended by just 1 student.

Among the disadvantaged population, minority groups often mentioned are the southern white and Negro. The number of disadvantaged white students can be conjectured from examination of data concerning the parents of the students. According to Table XVII, there were 237 parents who did not complete high school and a total of 137 who completed eighth grade or less. However, as mentioned in Chapter III, the approximately 36 per cent of parents who did not finish high school could be an even larger percentage, as a substantial number of students did not complete the family data page of the questionnaire. Table XXVII and Table XXVIII may indicate that the Center enrolled some educationally disadvantaged children of parents with college or graduate school background; however, this cannot be verified with available data.

Excluding housewives from the occupational cate-

gories, the largest number of parents are working in jobs classified as "Craftsmen and foremen." In contrast, approximately 20 per cent of the parents were occupied in jobs classified as "Professional and technical workers" and "Managers, officials, and proprietors"; among these could be found jobs as diverse as laboratory technician and public school teacher. These totals include parents of both white and non-white students. Although the unemployment of the parents is a significant factor in classifying students as disadvantaged, this information was not available.

In the city of Orange, Texas, the principal non-white race is the Negro; the 1960 United States Census of Population showed 5,833 Negroes and 58 people of other races. The 8.35 per cent non-white enrollment at the Orange Extension Center was far below the approximately 23 per cent non-white population of Orange, if the population percentages have remained relatively stable in the period since the last census.

In a specific effort to ascertain how many young, educationally disadvantaged were being reached by the Center, it was determined that there were twenty-eight students in the usual college age group, 17-25, who had graduated from high school, had not previously been enrolled in a college, and had no plans to enroll in a college until the Center was established. This number included thirteen white males, twelve white females, no non-white

males, and three non-white females.

The Center showed characteristics of the community or junior college, which is sometimes described as inherently compensatory. There was a modified "open door" policy allowing students with less than a 700 SAT score to enter the Center; there were 19 male students and 14 female students who gave this modified admission policy as the principal reason for their enrollment at the Center as shown in Table X. As mentioned in Chapter III, the instructors gave more than the usual amount of encouragement to students having scholastic problems and assisted them with explanations, enrichment, reinforcement, or whatever seemed best to meet the academic needs of the students. This was done on an informal, unorganized basis. Also typical of a community college student body was the fact that 50 male students and 93 female students stated that their principal reason for attending the Center was its proximity to their residence, as indicated in Table X. A large number of students who were working full time is shown in Table IV, and this is also characteristic of a commuter college.

In conclusion, the Center enrolled a comparatively small number of students who definitely could be called disadvantaged and who would not have enrolled in a college if the Center had not been established. Any exact number of disadvantaged students would be ambiguous and debatable.

It is probable that initiating a larger number of specific compensatory practices or programs would result in a larger enrollment of disadvantaged students.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS TO INCREASE ENROLLMENT OF DISADVANTAGED STUDENTS

In order to better serve the educationally disadvantaged students of the Orange area, there are several practices that could be utilized. Dissemination of information concerning the Center could be greatly increased by publicity on radio and television stations, as inferred from Table XVI. Parents' knowledge of college possibilities increase the students' chances of college attendance, as parents usually have a major influence on the achievement motivation of students.

A student's image of himself as a potential college student is influenced not only by his parents' expectations and the school's, but also by the expectations of his peers. A principal recommendation is for increased motivation, for exploring new ways and making new efforts to stimulate these students to seek higher education. For this reason, special efforts should be made to provide all relevant information, possibly in a printed brochure, to Orange area junior and senior high school counselors, students, and their parents. It might be helpful to make the director and instructors of the Center available for talks

about the Center at the local schools.

The geographic availability of a college is recognized as a primary reason for enrollment by the disadvantaged, and this is corroborated by the data in Table X. The geographic availability of a college is very closely related to the problem of financial resources. For the student with adequate financial means, the location of a college he chooses to attend is not likely to prevent his enrollment. However, for the student of limited means, the location of the college he might attend is a significant factor in his decision to enroll. The distance of ten miles is sometimes considered an easy commuting range, providing public or family transportation is available.

A review of the literature indicated that many studies revealed that financial problems were an obstacle to college attendance and often affected the student's whole attitude toward higher education. There are three aspects of the cost of higher education to the students: the cost of room, board, and clothing; the direct costs of college attendance, such as tuition, fees, and book costs; and the indirect costs of reduced or lost income for the student or his family during college years. Both direct and indirect costs have increased rapidly during the past few years. Students enrolled in the Orange Extension Center during its first semester found that minimum tuition charges were $12 per semester hour, which was considerably

more than charges at Lamar's main campus for students taking more than one course. For example, the cost at Lamar was $98 plus laboratory fees for students enrolled in twelve or more semester hours. At the Orange Extension Center, tuition fees were $144 for twelve semester hours or $180 for fifteen semester hours. However, for Orange residents, lower transportation costs helped to offset the higher tuition fees.

Traditionally, the forms of financial aid to students have been scholarships, grants, loans, and employment. Frequently, scholarships have been awarded as recognition for achievement or as tokens for incentive rather than financial aid. As mentioned in Chapter II, disadvantaged students, whether academically talented or not, generally require financial assistance both to enter college and to remain in college. Students who are academic risks require more time to spend on their studies than average or above average students. In order to increase the enrollment and chances for success of disadvantaged students at the Orange Extension Center, it is recommended that a work-study program be initiated. The student would be limited to working from six to ten hours per week at above average wages, so that he would not be compelled to spend so much time working that he neglected his academic program. If possible, the students should be given opportunities for employment that would be related to their

major field of study.

Another major obstacle to both college enrollment and college success is a group of problems described as academic. Facility with language is a basic part of necessary equipment for college, and a college student's continuation and success is most directly influenced by his language ability. It is recommended that the Center investigate and experiment with every feasible means to improve the disadvantaged student's language facility. Consideration should be given to tutoring by instructors and by peers, small group instruction, separate classes, and programmed instruction.

IV. OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS

In general, the Orange Extension Center was accepted as the beginning of systematic higher education in the Orange area, and many segments of the community were involved with, and interested in, its continuing successful existence. It is recommended that this interaction with the community be consistently encouraged and strengthened. Publicity regarding events or improvements at the Center and the aggressive scheduling of appropriate community meetings at the Center might be ways of increasing community participation and interest. Instructors who are both knowledgeable and tactful concerning community life and customs could be of inestimable value, especially in

motivating junior and senior high school students to attend college.

It is recommended that a longitudinal study be made of the students who were enrolled at the Center during the fall semester, 1969. This study could determine how many of the students actually completed requirements for a college degree, what college they attended subsequent to enrollment in the Center, and the level of academic achievement attained.

It is also recommended that a study be made of the student body that will enroll at the Center in the fall of 1970 and that the results be used in making decisions concerning the future of the Center. If compensatory practices or programs are initiated, it is recommended that an accurate assessment of their results be assured by requiring a precise description of the practices or programs, the specific conditions under which they begin, and the appropriate collection and analysis of data. Educational and social variables should be identified and evaluated.

With additional time for planning evaluation procedures, standardized tests may be administered before and after the 1970 fall semester, a control group may be selected on the Lamar campus, or high school grades and rank may be utilized to determine the level of academic achievement. It was unfortunate that semester grades, with their

inherent limitations, were the only specific criterion measures that were available for use in this study. The students' academic achievement could have been discussed with greater accuracy and clarity if other evaluation procedures had been followed. Instructors at the Center may have found it difficult to compensate equitably for subjective, if unconscious, attitudes toward their students. Or perhaps individual differences among instructors resulted in differing grades for comparable assignments and examinations. However, due to the short period of time available for establishing the Center, adequate measures for the evaluation of academic achievement were not planned.

There is a chronic need for fundamental research on the teaching of reading and language skills, as almost insurmountable problems of the disadvantaged, as well as research on their other problems. It is recommended that interdisciplinary research be initiated to consider these problems adequately; appropriate disciplines might include health, medicine, social work, sociology, psychology, public administration, education, criminology, and economics.

There are many obvious recommendations that could be made in regard to the building that houses the Center. A former elementary school may be satisfactory as a temporary expedient, but is hardly suitable for long-term usage as an institution of higher learning. Most urgent is the need for increased library facilities. Another urgent need

is the continuance of a faculty dedicated to teaching, rather than research, and vitally interested in this special situation, with all of its many implications for social progress.

The development of compensatory practices and programs at the college level has been due to social forces, such as the growing need for educated manpower in industry, increasing pressures of the civil rights movement, new conceptions of the educability of students from all socio-economic classes, and support of various philanthropic organizations. The establishment of the Orange Extension Center was a response to pressure from these social forces locally expressed by residents of Orange, Texas. From its modest and limited beginnings, the Center may eventually become capable of providing new opportunities and new approaches for the optimal development of all its future students.

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APPENDIX A

ORANGE EXTENSION CENTER

Please print.

Name_____
Last First Middle

Permanent Address:

City_____

County_____

State_____

Present Address:

City_____

County_____

State_____

Please circle the appropriate answer:

Sex
Male Female

Marital Status
Never Married Married Divorced Widowed

Do you have any children? Yes No
If the answer to the above question was "Yes," how many children do you have?_____
How many of your children are still living at home with you?_____

Race
White Non-White

Religious Preference
Protestant Catholic Other None

Are you employed at present? Yes No
If the answer to the above question was "Yes," how many hours per week do you work at your place of employment?_____

Age Group
17 through 25 26 through 35 36 through 45
46 through 65 Over 65

ENROLLMENT DATA

How did you <u>first</u> hear about the Orange Extension Center?

TV Newspaper Radio Conversation Other

In how many courses are you enrolled at the Orange Extension Center?_____ How many hours?_____

At this time, are you enrolled in classes at any other school besides the Orange Extension Center? Yes No

If the answer to the above question was "Yes," please state the name of the other school where you are enrolled and the number of classes you are taking there.

_____
Name of School

_____
Number of Classes

Had you planned to enroll in another college before arrangements were made to establish the Orange Extension Center? Yes No

If the answer to the above question was "Yes," where had you planned to enroll?_____

_____

Which of the following is the <u>main</u> reason that you decided to enroll at the Orange Extension Center? (Please circle only one.)

1. Close to where I live.
2. Less expensive than another college.
3. The hours allow me to work and attend college.
4. Below 700 SAT score accepted.
5. Personal interest in a course offered.
6. Other (please specify.)_____

_____

EDUCATIONAL DATA

Are you a high school graduate? Yes No

Have you ever been enrolled in a junior or senior college, including Lamar College, before this semester? Yes No

If the answer to the above question was "Yes," what is the name of the college or colleges?

_____

_____

What is your academic status at the college or colleges in which you were previously enrolled?

In good standing On scholastic probation

On scholastic suspension

What is the date of your last attendance at a college? _____

Total number of semester hours completed before September, 1969.

0 to 29 30 to 59 60 to 89 90 to 119

120 or above Don't know

Do you expect to complete requirements for a degree? Yes No

If the answer to the above question is "Yes," what is your tentative major field of study?_____

Which of the following is your main reason for attending college? (Please circle one.)

1. To obtain degree required for my future career.
2. To upgrade skills needed in my present position.
3. For personal interests (unrelated to a career).
4. Other (Please specify.)_____

FAMILY DATA

Educational Level of Father (Please circle the last year of school that your father completed.)

Elementary	High School	College	Graduate
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	9 10 11 12	1 2 3 4	1 2 3

Occupation of Father (Please circle the most appropriate category.)

Professional and technical workers
Managers, officials, and proprietors
Clerical workers
Salesworkers
Craftsmen and foremen
Operatives
Laborers (non-farm)
Private household workers
Other service workers
Farm workers

Educational Level of Mother (Please circle the last year of school that your mother completed.)

Elementary	High School	College	Graduate
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	9 10 11 12	1 2 3 4	1 2 3

Occupation of Mother (Please circle the most appropriate category.)

Housewife (only occupation)
Professional and technical workers
Managers, officials, and proprietors
Clerical workers
Salesworkers
Craftsmen and foremen
Operatives
Laborers (non-farm)
Private household workers
Other service workers
Farm workers

APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTORS AT THE ORANGE EXTENSION CENTER,

DEGREES COMPLETED, AND

PREVIOUS TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Leslie Gould Aaholm
B.A. in Speech - Lamar State College of Technology
No previous teaching experience

Harvey McRae Arnold
B.A. in Speech - Harding College
5 years teaching experience, high school level

Gordon G. Broussard
B.S. in Chemistry - Texas A & M University
M. Ed. - Texas A & M University
1 year teaching experience, high school level

Edwin B. Buster, Jr.
B.S. - Sam Houston State Teachers College
M.A. - Sam Houston State Teachers College
3 years teaching experience, college level

Sharon Ghiasson
B.A. in English - Lamar State College of Technology
M.A. in English - Lamar State College of Technology
3 years experience, teaching fellow at Lamar

Thomas J. Crow
B.A. - Lamar State College of Technology
M.A. - Lamar State College of Technology
2 years experience, teaching fellow at Lamar

Newton Jerome Friedman
A.B. - Western Reserve University
B.H.L., Rabbi, D.D. - Hebrew Union College
Th.D. - Burton Seminary
14 years teaching experience, college level

Maria Dolores Garcia
B.S. - Lamar State College of Technology
4 years teaching experience, high school level

James Rankin Harvey
B.B.A. - Lamar State College of Technology
M.B.A. - Lamar State College of Technology
No previous teaching experience

Jackie Lane Helms
B.A. - Lamar State College of Technology
4 years teaching experience, high school level

Shelley Ann Hurst
B.A. - North Texas State University
M.A. - North Texas State University
Certificate, Goethe Institute, Germany
1 year teaching experience, college level

Mary Francis Knouff
B.A. - Adelphi University
M.S. - Stephen F. Austin State College
2 years teaching experience: 1 year at high school level and
1 year at college level

Jose Ramon Leon
B.S. in Mech. Engr. - Ohio University
M.S. in Ind. Engr. - Texas Technological College
2 years teaching experience, college level

H. D. Pate
Juris Doctor - South Texas College
No previous teaching experience

James Calvin Ronning
B.S. in Government - Lamar State College of Technology
M. Ed. - Abilene Christian College
2 years teaching experience, high school level

Samuel Paul Stansbury
B.A. - Lamar State College of Technology
4 years teaching experience, high school level

Janis P. Stout
B.A. - Lamar State College of Technology
M.A. - Lamar State College of Technology
3 years teaching experience, college level

Joe Ben Welch
B.S. - Louisiana Polytechnic Institute
M. Ed. - Lamar State College of Technology
7 years teaching experience: 5 years at high school level and
2 years at college level

APPENDIX C

CLASS SCHEDULE

MONDAY-WEDNESDAY

Course No.	Section	Description	Instructor
GROUP A		1:00-2:15 p.m.	
Eng. 131	82	Rhetoric and Composition	Stout
Eco. 131	15	Principles	Harvey
Hist. 131	11	History of World Civilization	Crow
Math. 131	5	Finite Mathematics I	Welch
Hist. 134	8	History of Texas	Helms
Spch. 131	23	Fundamentals of Effective Speech	Arnold
GROUP B		2:30-3:45 p.m.	
Eco. 131	16	Principles	Harvey
Eng. 131	78	Rhetoric and Composition	Stout
Govt. 231	22	American Constitutional System	Friedman
Socl. 131	23	Introduction	Buster
GROUP C		6:00-7:15 p.m.	
Eng. 131	79	Rhetoric and Composition	Chiasson
Govt. 231	23	American Constitutional System	Pate
Hist. 131	12	History of World Civilization	Crow
Math. 135	5	Contemporary Mathematics I	Leon
GROUP D		7:30-8:45 p.m.	
Hist. 134	7	History of Texas	Stansbury
Math. 134	19	College Algebra	Leon
Span. 131	6	First Year Spanish	Garcia
Psy. 131	7	Introduction to Human Behavior	Ronning

TUESDAY-THURSDAY

GROUP E		1:00-2:15 p.m.	
Eng. 131	80	Rhetoric and Composition	Chiasson
Hist. 131	14	History of World Civilization	Crow
Math. 134	20	History of Texas	Welch
Art 137	1	Language of Art	Aaholm
Eng. 131	83	Rhetoric and Composition	Hurst
GROUP F		2:30-3:45 p.m.	
Eco. 131	17	Principles	Harvey
Eng. 132	30	Rhetoric and Composition	Chiasson
Math. 135	6	Contemporary Mathematics I	Welch
Psy. 131	8	Introduction to Human Behavior	Broussard
Spch. 131	24	Fundamentals of Effective Speech	Knouff

GROUP G		6:00-7:15 p.m.	
Eng. 131	81	Rhetoric and Composition	Chiasson
Govt. 231	24	American Constitutional System	Pate
Hist. 131	15	History of World Civilization	Crow
Math. 133	9	Analytical Trigonometry	Welch
GROUP H		7:30-8:45 p.m.	
Eco. 131	18	Principles	Harvey
Socl. 131	24	Introduction	Buster
Spch. 131	25	Fundamentals of Effective Speech	Knouff

APPENDIX D

TABLE XXXI

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF FATHERS OF MALE STUDENTS

FINAL YEAR OF EDUCATION COMPLETED BY FATHERS					
Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Elementary					
1					
2	1	1			2
3	1	1	1	1	4
4	3	1		1	5
5	1				1
6	1	1	3		5
7	2	3		1	6
8	9	3	1	1	14
High School					
9	4	1			5
10			4	1	5
11	3	1	2	1	7
12	39	5	1		45
College					
1	5	1	1		7
2	5				5
3	2				2
4	4				4
Graduate					
1					
2	2				2
3	3				3
				Total	122

TABLE XXXII

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF FATHERS OF FEMALE STUDENTS

FINAL YEAR OF EDUCATION COMPLETED BY FATHERS					
Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Elementary					
1		1			1
2		1			1
3				1	1
4		2			2
5			2		2
6	3	2	1	2	8
7	5	2		1	8
8	9	9	7	2	27
High School					
9	4	2	1	1	8
10	2	3	1		6
11	1	1	1	2	5
12	29	19	12	1	61
College					
1	1	1		1	3
2	9	3	1		13
3	4	2			6
4	3		2		5
Graduate					
1					
2	1				1
3	3	3		2	8
				Total	166

TABLE XXXIII

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF MOTHERS OF MALE STUDENTS

FINAL YEAR OF EDUCATION COMPLETED BY MOTHERS					
Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Elementary					
1					
2			1		1
3					
4					
5	1				1
6					
7	2	1	1		4
8	4	4	2	1	11
High School					
9	5	2		1	8
10	3	1	3	1	8
11	10	3	2	1	16
12	46	7	4	1	58
College					
1	7	1			8
2	7		1	1	9
3		1			1
4	7				7
Graduate					
1					
2					
3					
				Total	132

TABLE XXXIV

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF MOTHERS OF FEMALE STUDENTS

	FINAL YEAR OF EDUCATION COMPLETED BY MOTHERS				
Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Elementary					
1					
2					
3			1		1
4		1			1
5			1		1
6		1	1	2	4
7		1			1
8	8	6	7	4	25
High School					
9	2		1		3
10	3	4	2	1	10
11	7	11	1		19
12	31	17	11	6	65
College					
1	5	2	1	1	9
2	3	2	2		7
3	3				3
4	8	6	1	2	17
Graduate					
1					
2					
3					
				Total	166

TABLE XXXV

OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF MALE STUDENTS

Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Occupations of Fathers					
Professional and technical	10		1		11
Managers, officials, proprietors	10	2	1	1	14
Clerical workers	3		1		4
Salesworkers	5			1	6
Craftsmen, foremen	33	12	6	1	52
Operatives	14	1			15
Laborers (non-farm)	4	2			6
Private household workers					
Other service workers	6			2	8
Farm workers	1	1	1		3
				Total	119

TABLE XXXVI

OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF FEMALE STUDENTS

Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Occupations of Fathers					
Professional and technical	11	4	4	3	22
Managers, officials, proprietors	7	16	4	2	29
Clerical workers	1	3	1		5
Salesworkers	1	1	1		3
Craftsmen, foremen	27	17	11	5	60
Operatives	11	2	2	1	16
Laborers (non-farm)	9	5	3		17
Private household workers					
Other service workers	6		1	2	9
Farm workers	2	3	3	3	11
				Total	172

TABLE XXXVII

OCCUPATIONS OF MOTHERS OF MALE STUDENTS

Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Occupations of Mothers					
Professional and technical	15	2	1	1	19
Managers, officials, proprietors	3	1			4
Clerical workers	5				5
Salesworkers	5	2		1	8
Craftsmen, foremen					
Operatives		1			1
Laborers (non-farm)					
Private household workers	2				2
Other service workers	3	2			5
Farm workers					
Housewife	57	13	13	3	86
				Total	130

TABLE XXXVIII

OCCUPATIONS OF MOTHERS OF FEMALE STUDENTS

Age Group of Students:	17-25	26-35	36-45	46-65	Total
Occupations of Mothers					
Professional and technical	15	10	2	4	31
Managers, officials, proprietors	1	4			5
Clerical workers	9	11	3		23
Salesworkers	3	3	1		7
Craftsmen, foremen	2				2
Operatives	1	1			2
Laborers (non-farm)					
Private household workers	3				3
Other service workers	6			2	8
Farm workers					
Housewife	33	23	24	13	93
				Total	174